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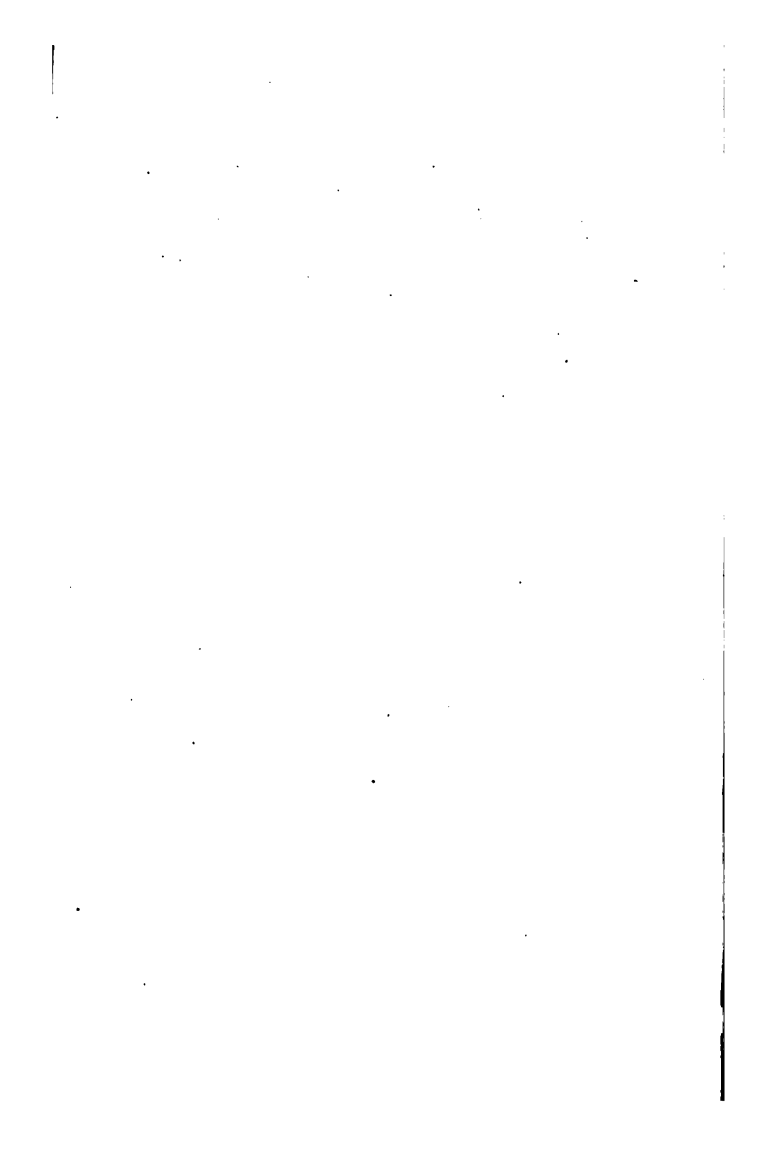
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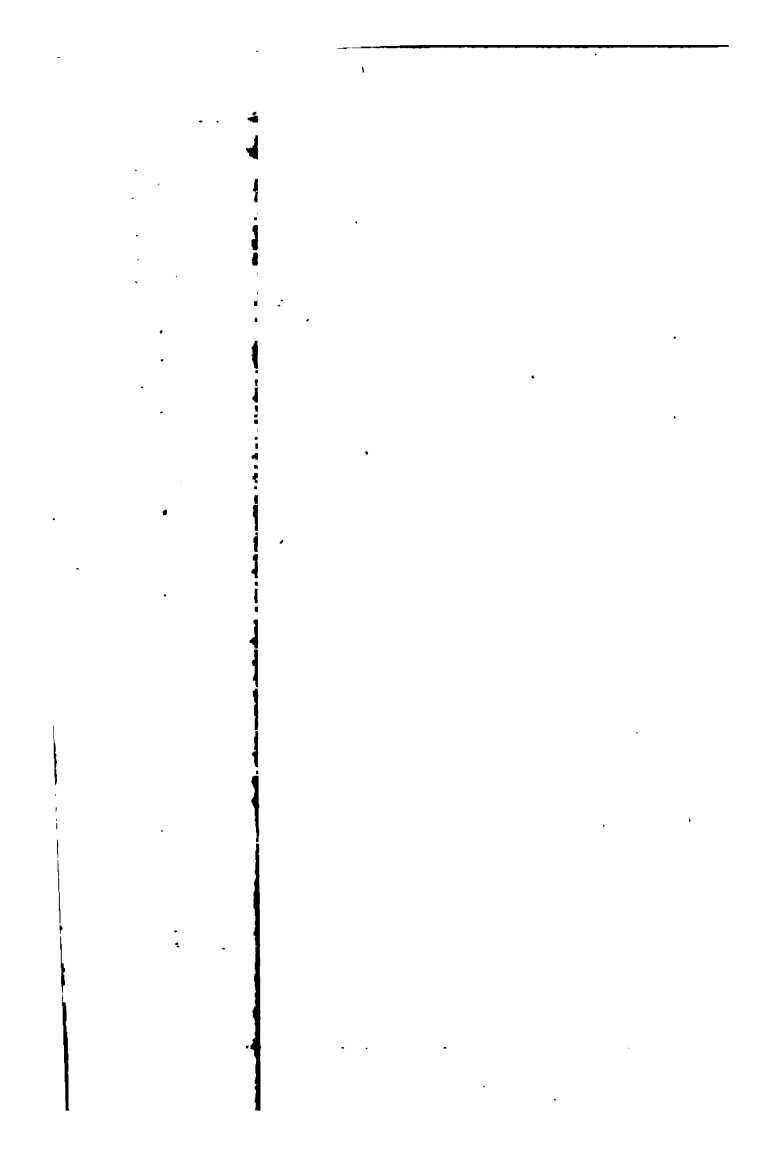
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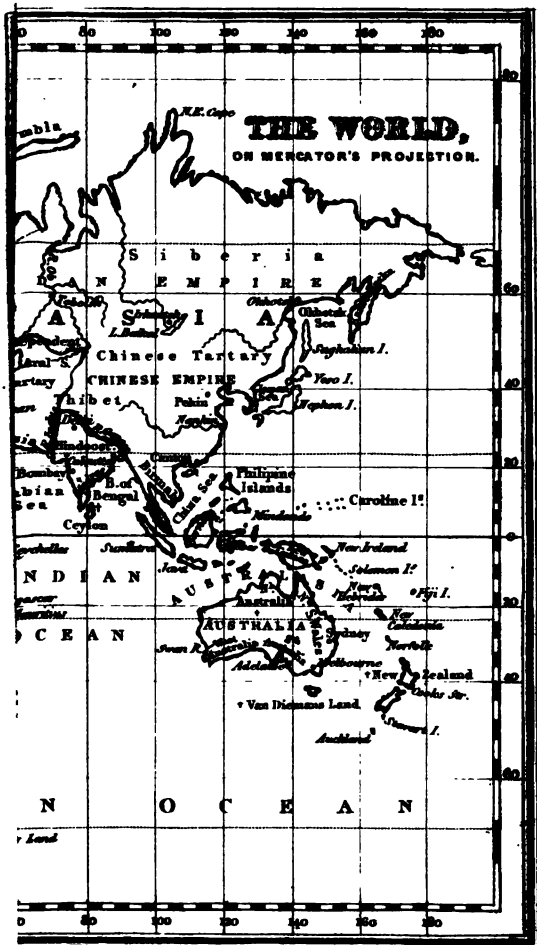
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AN INTRODUCTION
TO THE STUDY OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY;

WITH A CHAPTER ON THE
GEOGRAPHY OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

BY
THE REV. HENRY HOPWOOD, M.A.,
RECTOR OF BOTHAL, NORTHUMBERLAND.

LONDON:
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JAMES BURNS, PORTMAN STREET.

M.DCCC.XLVI.



TO

THE VENERABLE JOHN SINCLAIR, M.A.,

ARCHDEACON OF MIDDLESEX,

&c. &c. &c.

THE FOLLOWING PAGES

ARE RESPECTFULLY INSCRIBED.

BOTHAL RECTORY, NORTHUMBERLAND,
May, 1846.

ADVERTISEMENT.

THE following little work has been written, by request, for the use of Families and Church Schools. The present volume is chiefly designed as a Manual for Teachers. An Abridgment, for the use of the Children, has also been prepared. Both volumes have been carefully compiled from the best and most recent sources of information. They are intended to exhibit the principal truths and facts of Geography, in connection with sound views on those religious subjects which such a work necessarily embraces.

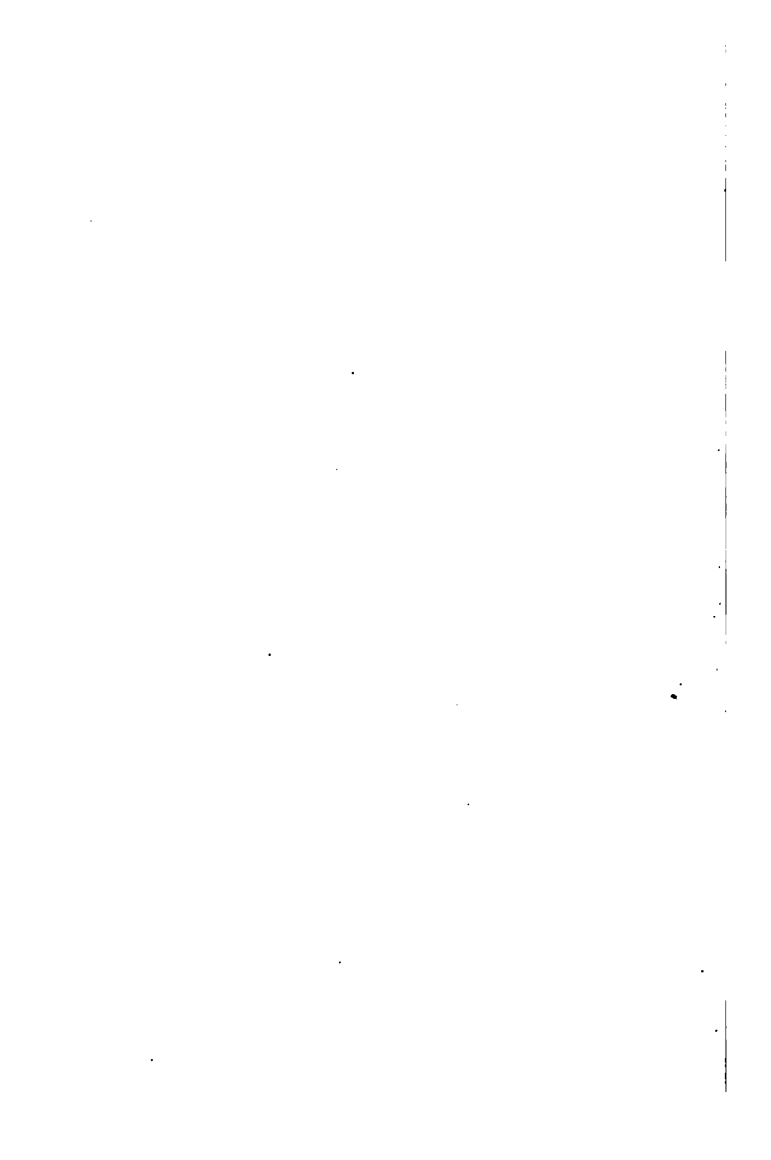


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AN INTRODUCTION
TO THE STUDY OF
MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

CHAPTER I.

THE EARTH.

1. *Geography* is the scientific description of the earth, considered as the habitation of mankind. It is closely related to astronomy, geology, natural history, political history, and statistics : hence it is usually distributed under three heads—astronomical, physical, and political. Astronomical geography treats of the figure, magnitude, and motions of the earth, together with her place in the solar system. Physical geography treats of the great natural phenomena of the earth's surface, together with the distribution of vegetables, animals, and mankind. Political geography treats of the civil and ecclesiastical condition, the resources, industry, and commerce of the various nations and people of the earth, at any given time, and chiefly as determined by natural causes.

SECTION I.

THE EARTH CONSIDERED AS A PLANET.

2. *Figure of the Earth.*—The general figure of the earth is that of a sphere or globe. This truth is proved by such arguments as the following: (1.) As a ship recedes from the shore, she diminishes in apparent size, yet the whole can be seen until she reaches the visible horizon. When she has passed this limit, the hull begins to disappear, and soon vanishes, although the masts and sails may yet be discerned; but these, too, seem gradually to sink into the water, and the whole at last disappears. Such appearances would not take place if the earth were a flat extended surface: but they are precisely such as would occur if the earth were globular; therefore they render it probable that this is her true figure. (2.) The earth has been circumnavigated, as by Magellan and Drake, who, sailing from Europe in a course always to the west, have arrived at the place whence they had departed, thus proving that the earth's surface is circular in that general direction. Observations on the stars, made by navigators towards the north, and towards the south, establish the truth of this conclusion as regards those directions. Such voyages and observations have been multiplied, and establish the general conclusion that the earth is a globe. (3.) When by a series of observations we have ascertained that the eclipses of the moon are caused by the conical shadow of the earth, which has invariably a circular boundary on the

moon's disc, we have obtained the fullest confirmation of the earth's rotundity, since the body, which, under all circumstances, casts such a shadow, must be globular.

3. While such arguments as these prove that the general figure of the earth is spherical, careful observation and calculation have determined that its exact figure is that of an *oblate spheroid*; but one which differs so little from a sphere, all whose diameters are equal, that the difference of the two extreme diameters of the spheroid would not, on a 12-inch globe, exceed the thickness of a leaf of common writing-paper.

4. The inequalities of the earth's surface furnish no argument against its general form, since the highest mountains bear a less ratio to the whole earth than a grain of sand to an ordinary artificial globe. The vulgar notions respecting *up* and *down* have given rise to untenable objections to the doctrine of the earth's sphericity. How, it is asked by untaught objectors, could our antipodes remain upon the earth if it were spherical; since their feet would be uppermost, their heads hanging down in the air? We reply, that all parts of the earth, all things and persons on its surface, are attracted towards the centre: and that the words *up* and *down* properly refer, not to the heavens, but to the earth's centre and surface; from the centre to the surface being *up*, from the surface to the centre *down*. Our antipodes are in the same position, relative to the earth, as ourselves: they have the surface of the earth beneath their feet, and the heavens above their heads.

5. *Magnitude of the Earth.*—The earth's equa-

torial diameter is about 7925 miles ; the polar diameter, 7899 miles ; the ratio of the polar to the equatorial diameter being 305 to 306. Her mean diameter is about 7913 miles ; her circumference about 25,000 miles ; and her surface nearly 197 millions of square miles.

6. *Place of the Earth in the Solar System.*—That portion of the universe, of which the *sun* is the centre, is called the Solar System. It consists of the sun himself, and a number of planets and comets which revolve around him. The sun is an immense globe, nearly one million four hundred thousand times larger than the earth, placed near the centre of the system, and dispensing light and heat to the dependent bodies. The planets are either primary or secondary. The primary planets revolve round the sun in elliptical orbits : they are eleven in number, viz. Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Vesta, Juno, Ceres, Pallas, Jupiter, Saturn, and Uranus. The secondary planets revolve round other planets, by whom they are also carried round the sun : they are called satellites or moons, and are eighteen in number. The Earth has one, Jupiter four, Saturn seven, and Uranus six. The distance of the earth from the sun is 95 millions of miles.

7. *Motions of the Earth.*—The earth has two principal motions. Once every 24 hours she revolves on her *axis*—an imaginary line, passing through her centre from north to south, the extreme points of which are called *poles*. In consequence of the earth's sphericity, one-half of her surface is enlightened by the sun, which causes day ; while the other half is involved in the darkness of night. In consequence

of her diurnal rotation, every portion of her surface enjoys the *succession* of day and night. This rotation of the earth on her axis, which is from west to east, gives the sun and all the heavenly bodies the *appearance* of moving from east to west; and hence we speak of their rising, culminating, and setting, in that direction.

8. The earth also travels round the sun, in the course of a year, in an orbit or path which is, strictly, an ellipse; but at the same time so nearly circular that we may regard it as such. The length of this year is very nearly 365 days 6 hours.

9. *Geographical Circles.*—Geographers find it convenient to suppose various circles to be drawn on the earth's surface. Most of these are derived from astronomy. They are drawn on maps and artificial globes.

10. Those which have the same centre as the earth itself are called *great circles*; these divide the globe into two equal parts or hemispheres. All others are called *small circles*; they have independent centres, and divide the earth into two unequal parts. Every circle, great or small, is supposed, by English mathematicians, to be divided into 360 equal parts, called *degrees*; each degree is subdivided into 60 equal parts, called *minutes*; and each minute into 60 equal parts, called *seconds*. Degrees are marked ($^{\circ}$), minutes ($'$), and seconds ($''$). These degrees vary in length according to the magnitude of the circle. On a great circle, a degree is equal to 60 geographical miles, or about $69\frac{1}{10}$ English miles.

11. That great circle, which at every point is

equally distant from the poles, is called the *Equator*. It divides the earth into the northern and southern hemispheres. The earth's orbit, which is the sun's apparent annual path, is another great circle, called the *Ecliptic*. The earth's axis is not perpendicular to her orbit, but is inclined to it at an angle of about $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$; consequently the ecliptic is inclined to the equator at an angle of about $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. This angle is not, strictly, invariable; but here we shall treat it as such. These two circles intersect one another at points which are known as the *equinoctial points*. These points are not, strictly, fixed; but here we shall treat them as such.

12. If now we follow the sun in his apparent path from the vernal equinox, we shall see that he will recede northward from the equator until he has reached the distance of $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, as measured on a line passing from the north to the south pole through the equator. At this point he will appear, first, to *stand still* for a while, and then to *turn back* southwards towards the equator. Hence this point is called the *summer solstice*; and the circle which passes through it, parallel to the equator, is called the *tropic of Cancer*.¹ He will next appear to cross the equator

¹ The early astronomers referred the sun's apparent motion among the stars to certain constellations, included in a zone or band, which they called the *Zodiac*. In consequence of a certain slow motion, called the precession of the equinoxes, the signs of the ecliptic no longer correspond to the constellations: but this does not affect geographical phenomena. The signs of the Zodiac are—

♈ Aries.	♋ Cancer.	♎ Libra.	♏ Capricornus.
♉ Taurus.	♌ Leo.	♍ Scorpio.	♐ Aquarius.
♊ Gemini.	♍ Virgo.	♐ Sagittarius.	♑ Pisces.

at the autumnal equinox, and thence to travel southward, as far as $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, measured as before. Here, therefore, we have the *winter solstice* and the *tropic of Capricorn*, from which the sun apparently returns towards the spring or vernal equinox.

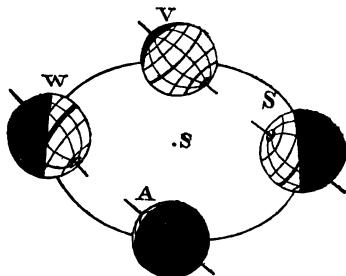
13. Since the sun, in consequence of the earth's sphericity, enlightens half the globe at any one given time, when he is at the summer solstice he will enlighten the globe $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ beyond the north pole. The circle which marks this illumination is called the *arctic circle*. In like manner, when the sun is at the winter solstice, he will mark out a corresponding circle, $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ from the south pole, called the *antarctic circle*.

14. Every great circle passing through the poles, and consequently cutting the equator at a right angle, is called a *meridian*. Each such circle is called the meridian of the places through which it passes.

15. The earth is apparently situated in the centre of an immense concave sphere, in which the sun, moon, planets, and stars perform their respective apparent courses. A portion only of this sphere is visible at any one time to a fixed spectator: the circle which bounds his view is called the *horizon*. If he is situated in the northern or southern hemisphere, this will be a small circle, and is called the *sensible horizon*. If he is situated at the equator, it will be a great circle, and is called the *rational horizon*. The point immediately or vertically over his head is called the *zenith*; the point vertically beneath his feet the *nadir*.

16. *The Seasons*.—We can now explain the phenomena of the seasons, so far as they depend

on astronomical causes; availing ourselves of the following diagram :—



Here we have the sun in the centre, and the earth, in her orbit,¹ in four positions, 90° apart; viz. on March 21, the vernal equinox; June 21, the summer solstice; September 21, the autumnal equinox; and December 21, the winter solstice. The earth's axis, it will be observed, is always parallel to itself. In the positions V and A, this is inclined neither towards nor from the sun, which accordingly shines over half of the northern and half of the southern hemispheres; in other words, from pole to pole. As the earth revolves on her axis, every point of her surface will describe half its diurnal course in light and half in darkness, so that the duration of day and night will be equal over the whole world. Hence these points are called *equinoxes*. In the position S, the northern half of the earth's axis is turned towards the sun, which accordingly shines over the

¹ The earth's orbit is here supposed to be circular; but seen in perspective by an eye situated towards the bottom of the page, and somewhat elevated above it.

whole region lying within the arctic circle, causing there uninterrupted day. In the position W, the northern half of the earth's axis being turned away from the sun, this region will be immersed in unbroken night. As regards the intermediate positions, the days will gradually lengthen, and the nights will equally shorten, (since day and night together make up 24 hours,) from the vernal equinox to the summer solstice, when we have the longest day; from this to the autumnal equinox, the days will shorten and the nights lengthen, until they are once more equal; from the autumnal equinox to the winter solstice, the days will shorten; and from this to the vernal equinox, they will lengthen. In the southern hemisphere the succession of the seasons is reversed; the spring of this corresponding to the autumn of the northern, the summer to the winter, and so on.

17. The inclination of the earth's axis to the plane of her orbit leads to the division of the earth's surface into zones, which differ greatly in their temperature. These zones are five in number. That which lies between the north pole and the arctic circle is called the *north frigid zone*; that between the south pole and the antarctic circle the *south frigid zone*. The extreme cold of these zones is occasioned by the total disappearance of the sun during their winter, and the great obliquity of his rays during their summer. Those two portions of the earth's surface, which lie between the polar circles and the tropics, are called the *north and south temperate zones*. That portion which lies between the two tropics, $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ on each side of the equator, is called the *torrid zone*. The sun is always vertical over some part of it, and hence its extreme heat.

18. *Latitude and Longitude.*—The position of any place on the earth's surface is expressed by its distance from the equator, and from an arbitrary great circle called the first meridian. To ascertain these distances, draw a meridian through the given place: the length of the arc of this meridian between the given place and the equator, expressed in degrees, minutes, and seconds, will be its distance from the equator; and is called its *latitude*. It is either north or south, according as the place is north or south of the equator. A place situated upon the equator will of course have no latitude; whilst the greatest possible latitudes will be those of the N. and S. poles, viz. 90° N. and 90° S. Since every meridian is a great circle, all degrees of latitude will be of nearly the same length.

19. Next, draw a circle through the given place parallel to the equator: the length of the arc of this parallel (as it is called) between the given place and the point where it intersects the first meridian, expressed in degrees, minutes, and seconds, will be its distance from the first meridian, and is called its *longitude*. It is usually reckoned as east or west, increasing from 0° , which is the longitude of all places upon the first meridian, to 180° , which is both E. and W. Some geographers are now beginning to adopt the preferable reckoning of eastward only; so that all longitudes are E. and increase up to 360° . The English take as their first meridian that which passes through the Observatory at Greenwich; the French that which passes through the Observatory at Paris; other first meridians are taken by other nations. Since every parallel is a small circle, the degrees of longitude will be of different lengths, de-

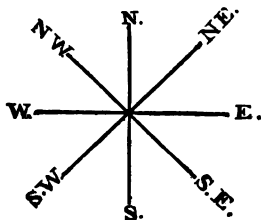
creasing from $69\frac{1}{10}$ English miles, their length at the equator, to nothing, their length at the N. or S. poles.

20. Since the meridians on which latitude is measured, mark longitude on the equator, they are called *meridians of longitude*. Since the parallels on which longitude is measured, mark latitude on the first meridian, they are called *parallels of latitude*.

21. *Time and Longitude*.—Since the sun appears to move from east to west, noon will occur earlier in the east than in the west. Since 15° is the twenty-fourth part of 360° , a place 15° east of London will have noon an hour earlier; a place 30° west of London will have noon two hours later; and so in proportion for all other places.

22. *Points of the Compass*.—The following are the 32 points of the compass.

NORTH.	EAST.	SOUTH.	WEST.
N. by E.	E. by S.	S. by W.	W. by N.
N. N. E.	E. S. E.	S. S. W.	W. N. W.
N. E. by N.	S. E. by E.	S. W. by S.	N. W. by W.
N. E.	S. E.	S. W.	N. W.
N. E. by E.	S. E. by S.	S. W. by W.	N. W. by N.
E. N. E.	S. S. E.	W. S. W.	N. N. W.
E. by N.	S. by E.	W. by S.	N. by W.



23. *Terrestrial Magnetism*.—The magnetic needle, the essential part of the mariner's compass, was introduced into Europe about A.D.1180: it had been long known to the Chinese. It was first used in navigation by Marco Paolo. Its peculiar property is to turn towards the north and south; but it is sometimes on the east, sometimes on the west, of the geographical meridian: this difference is termed the magnetic *variation*. Neither does the magnetic needle remain horizontal, when freely suspended: but it undergoes a *dip*; which, however, nearly disappears at the equator. The whole rationale of terrestrial magnetism is at present most obscure and difficult.

SECTION II.

GENERAL DISTRIBUTION OF LAND AND WATER.

24. The land occupies from one-fourth to one-third of the whole surface of the earth, and may be divided into three great portions called *worlds*, which are completely separated from each other by the ocean; viz. the *Old World*, subdivided into Europe, Asia, and Africa; the *New World*, subdivided into North and South America; and the *Maritime World*, or Oceanica, subdivided into Malaysia, Australia, and Polynesia.

25. Europe, Asia, Africa, and America are often called *continents*, because they contain several countries. A portion of land entirely surrounded by water is called an *island*. A portion of land almost surrounded by water is called a *peninsula*. A narrow

neck of land connecting two larger portions is called an *isthmus*. A portion of land projecting into the sea is called a *cape*; if high or mountainous, a *promontory*.

26. The water occupies from two-thirds to three-fourths of the whole surface of the earth, and constitutes, strictly, one immense ocean; which, however, is usually thus divided and subdivided. 1. The *Western* Ocean, which includes (1) the Northern, (2) the Atlantic, (3) the Ethiopic Oceans; all three being often called the Atlantic. 2. The *Eastern* Ocean, which includes (1) the Indian, (2) the Pacific, (3) the Southern Oceans.

27. A *sea* is a smaller portion of water than an ocean, and is somewhat bounded by land. A *gulph* is a portion of water almost surrounded by land. A *bay* is a portion of water running into the land, with a wider opening than a gulph. A *lake* is a portion of water entirely surrounded by land. The application of these terms, however, is somewhat capricious. A *strait* is a narrow passage of water, connecting two seas; when so shallow that it may be fathomed, it is called a *sound*. A *channel* is a passage longer and broader than a *strait*. A *harbour* is a small gulph or bay. The terms *road*, *port*, or *creek*, are also applied to small portions of the sea. A *river* is a current of fresh water, rising in the land, and flowing into the sea. The mouth of a river widening into the sea is called an *estuary* or *frith*. The right and left banks of a river are those on our right or left hands as we go down the stream; that is, from the head to the mouth.

28. We have observed the great inequality of land and water in respect of their extent on the earth's surface; *the inequality of distribution in respect of*

the two hemispheres is not less remarkable. Of the whole land, about four-fifths is situated in the northern hemisphere, and the remaining one-fifth in the southern.

29. The *general features of the Old and New Worlds* differ remarkably. In the Old World, the general direction of the land, and of the great mountain chains, is from west to east, almost parallel to the equator ; while in America their general direction is from north to south, along the meridian. Thus, the Alps in Europe, and the four great mountain ranges in Asia, stretch from west to east; while, in America, the Rocky Mountains, the Western Cordilleras, and the Andes, range from north to south. The coast line, again, of the Old World is very much more indented and broken than that of the New. In one respect only, under this head, do the two worlds agree : the promontories in both, whether large or small,—as, for example, South America, California, Greenland, Florida, Scandinavia, Italy, Greece, Arabia, India, Corea, Africa,—with scarcely an exception, point to the south.

30. Even a first glance over any considerable territory discovers *an exceedingly uneven surface*. The land is elevated into mountains; depressed into valleys; it stretches out into plains near the level of the sea; it rises high above this level and expands into extensive table-lands. The whole surface is elevated more or less above the general level of the ocean ; with the remarkable exception of a vast plain in Central Asia, which is more than 100 feet below the surface of the Black Sea.

31. *Plains*, with only moderate undulations, are

found in every region of the world. One of the most extensive is that which spreads from the confines of the Frozen Ocean, chiefly through Russia, to the shores of the Euxine and Caspian. Here it is interrupted by the Oural chain of mountains. But on the eastern side of these there spreads the great plain of Northern Asia, in a north-easterly direction, bounded on the south by the Altaian chain, until it almost sweeps the coast of the North Pacific Ocean. The surface of much of these two great plains is fertile; some of it is covered with heaths or swamps, producing a stunted vegetation; a considerable part is shrouded in dark pine forests.

32. *Deserts.*—The largest and most remarkable desert in the world is the Sahara, or great African Desert. It is, as its name imports, a sea of sand. It spreads like an ocean between the ridges of Mount Atlas and the parallels of the Senegal and the Niger, and from the Atlantic to the narrow valley of the Nile, covering a superficies of more than two millions of square miles. Like the sea, its surface, when agitated by the winds, rises in huge towering waves, which move with great rapidity, and sometimes overwhelm whole caravans of travellers. Indeed it would be impassable, even by camels, “the ships of the desert,” but for the oases, or fertile spots, which are met with here and there,—

————— the tufted isles

That verdant rise amid the Lybian wild.

33. The narrow valley of the Nile and the Red Sea are all that separate the African deserts from those of Asia. The deserts of Arabia, Syria, and Persia, are saharas on smaller scales. One distin-

guishing feature of the great desert in Persia is, that many parts of its surface are covered with saline incrustations: hence it is called the Great Salt Desert. These desert regions are remarkably deficient in considerable rivers: except the Nile, the Euphrates, the Indus, and Oxus, there are no large rivers in a region which embraces almost a fourth part of both Africa and Asia.

34 In Central Asia, which consists of an immense plateau or table-land, is the great desert of Cobi, about 1200 miles long, and from 500 to 700 miles broad. Through the middle of this, for its whole length, extends the Shamo, or sand sea, varying in breadth from 150 to 250 miles. The great elevation of this desert, and its comparative distance from the equator, preserve it from the scorching heats of the saharas of Africa and Arabia. Some of its plains, says Humboldt, are covered with herbage; others produce only evergreen saliferous plants, with fleshy and jointed stems; but a greater number glitter from afar with a saline efflorescence, that crystallizes in the semblance of lichens, and covers the clayey soil with scattered patches like new-fallen snow.

35. In America there are immense plains and extensive deserts. The vast tract included between the Rocky and the Alleghany mountains on the one hand, and the Gulph of Mexico and the Great Lakes on the other, may be regarded as one immense plain. The southern portion of this vast plain is exceedingly fertile; but the western and north-western parts of it abound in deserts, savannahs, and prairies. The savannahs and prairies are generally covered with a species of coarse grass, which often grows to the height of a

man; and they abound in wild animals, as the bison. In the western part of the plain, between the Ozark and Rocky Mountains, is the great American Desert; which bears a strong resemblance, in the portion traversed by the Platte River, to the barren and saline steppes of Asia. A great portion of the plain of the Mississippi is exposed to wide periodical inundations from that river: the alligator and the bison are the alternate lords of this extensive region. The other vast plains of America are the basins of the Amazon, La Plata, and the Orinoco. The *Ulanos* of Venezuela, extending from the mouth of the Orinoco to the foot of the Andes, are open solitudes,—motionless, gloomy, awful,—with a scanty soil, destitute of trees, but covered with a luxuriant herbage, in consequence of periodical inundations, which convert this part of South America into inland seas :—amid the turbid waters of which, says Humboldt, may be seen herds of wild cattle and of horses, swimming from one gradually diminishing island to another, in search of food, or escaping from the attacks of the jaguar, to become the prey of the alligator, or perhaps to be stunned by the strokes of the electric gymnotus. The *pampas* of Buenos Ayres stretch out to an immense extent between the Paraguay River and the Andes, presenting to the eye interminable plains, with a surface often as unvaried as the ocean.

36. *Mountains*.—Mountains are certainly the most striking features of the surface of the globe, and play an important part in the general economy of nature. They modify climate; produce much variety in the vegetable world; attract the waters of the sky, and disperse them over the face of the whole earth, under

the beneficent forms of rain and snow, of springs and rivers. They break up the otherwise monotonous surface of the earth, disclose her mineral treasures, and impart an unspeakable glory and charm, through every gradation of grandeur and beauty, to her boundless landscapes. Mountains exhibit numerous and picturesque varieties. The loftiest peaks generally consist of naked rocks, whose nature determines the outline. At one time the mountain shoots up enormous crystals, in bare and savage grandeur; while, in other instances, vast masses are crowned with rounded summits, rising into the air with tranquil majesty, and looking down, like throned kings, upon the plains below. Mountains of less elevation are often equally picturesque; and while generally destitute of the sharp angles and needle-points of the former class, sometimes present in their regular gradations a vast amphitheatre not less imposing. Beneath these rank hills; sometimes precipitous, but usually sloping away in gentle declivities, and losing themselves in the surrounding plains. Volcanic mountains are mostly conical. Basaltic mountains display immense pillars and causeways; as the Giant's Causeway in Ireland.

37. In general, the bases of a series of neighbouring mountains run into each other, constituting a *chain*. Chains of mountains are seldom solitary. Sometimes we find a central chain with secondary lines branching off from it; sometimes a collection of chains of equal rank; and in a few instances, as the Cordilleras of America, a series of chains running parallel to each other, for thousands of miles, in one constant direction. The following are the estimated

lengths of the principal mountain chains. The Andes, the Cordilleras, the Rocky Mountains, upwards of 10,000 miles. The Altai Mountains 5000. The Mountains of the Moon probably 2000. The Oural, Atlas, and Himaleh ranges, about 1500. The Dordfrine Mountains about 1000. The Caucasian range, the Alps, and Appenines, from 700 to 600. The Carpathians about 500. The Pyrenees about 250.

38. Every principal chain has one side very steep, and on the other a very gradual slope. The Alps, for instance, are much more rapid in their descent on the Italian side than on that of Switzerland. The Scandinavian masses are steepest towards the west and north-west; the Pyrenees towards the south. Mount Atlas and Mount Libanus present their bold and craggy declivities towards the Mediterranean. The two mountain chains that border the northern and the southern coasts of Asia Minor present very abrupt faces towards the Black Sea and the Mediterranean, while their inland sides merge more gently into high table-lands. In like manner, the Western Ghauts, on which the table-land of the Deccan rests, have precipitous declivities directly towards the west, and long and gentle slopes towards the east.

39. The *height of mountains* is an important point in physical geography; for elevation determines climate, and a single mountain side will exhibit great varieties of vegetables and animals at different heights. The *mean* height of the Himalayan chain is 15,600 feet; the highest mountain of the chain being Dhawalagiri, which attains 28,077 feet. Of the Andes, 11,800 feet; Nevada di Sorata, in the Bolivian Andes,

being 25,250. Of the Alps, 7700 feet; Mount Blanc, in the Pennine Alps, being 15,646 feet above the level of the sea.

40. *The Ocean.*—The depth of the ocean is unknown. But it has been calculated to be about 120 feet around the coasts of England, 860 around those of Scotland, 2000 on the western coast of Ireland, and 50,000 in the main Atlantic. The greatest probable depth hardly exceeds ten miles; while from four to five miles is the estimated mean depth.

41. The waters of the ocean are kept in perpetual motion by winds, currents, and tides. The effect of *wind* is chiefly confined to the surface: the wildest tempest does not agitate it at the depth of an hundred feet. But the appearance presented by the long ridgy waves, rising with an uniform and rapid swell, and curling over in foaming surges, which tumble headlong with prodigious force, is at once grand and terrific; and if waves meet with resistance, as when they dash against some lofty cliff, their actual height becomes much greater than in the deep sea.

42. The most general *currents* are produced by the movement of the waters perpetually setting from the polar regions towards the equator, and by the progression of the tropical seas towards the west. In the Atlantic, the Equatorial Current produces that remarkable movement of the waters called the *gulf stream*. This current, perceptible at the Canaries and travelling westward, passes between the West Indian islands, and sweeps along the northern coasts of South America to the Isthmus of Darien; thence it stretches towards Yucatan, and, after wheeling round the Mexican Gulph, rushes through the channel between Cuba and Florida, passing between the Baha-

mas and the United States towards Newfoundland, where it encounters the great current from the arctic regions, and is arrested. From Newfoundland the retrograde current travels eastwards, deflecting towards the south, sends a branch through the Straits of Gibraltar, and re-enters itself on the coast of Africa; having performed, in the course of thirty-five months, a magnificent circuit of more than 10,000 miles. There is also a general western current in the Great Pacific. This is greatly broken by the vast chain of islands and shoals which stretch from China to New Zealand. The huge mass of Australia produces separate and dangerous currents around its shores. The general current, passing through Bass's Straits and from among the Australasian islands, flows with weakened force through the Indian Ocean towards the Bay of Bengal. Deflected thence, it forms the current in the Mozambique Channel, and sweeps round the Cape of Good Hope in a powerful stream, not less than forty-three leagues in breadth. These great oceanic currents are chiefly caused by the centrifugal force of the earth's diurnal rotation.

43. It belongs to astronomy to teach the theory of *tides*; to explain the two floods and two ebbs daily; how the united influence of the sun and moon causes the two spring and two neap tides during each lunation; and why the highest tides take place about the equinoxes. The phenomenon of the tides has been observed in every part of the earth which is washed by the sea. For about six hours the sea gradually swells, so that it enters the mouths of harbours and rivers, advancing and rising upon the coasts: this is called *flood tide*. For about twelve

minutes it is stationary; and is said to be at *high water*. It then begins to ebb, or flow back again, for about six hours; again becomes stationary for about twelve minutes, during which it is *low water*; and then begins to flow again as before. The highest tides in the month are called *spring tides*; the lowest *neap*. These phenomena are much affected by local causes. The tides of the German Ocean take twelve hours to reach London Bridge. In the Baltic and the Mediterranean scarcely any tides are perceptible. But in bays, harbours, and seas open to the tidal currents, as Baffin's Bay, Hudson's Bay, and the Red Sea, there are regular and often very high tides. In the British Channel, the tide, which in the open sea does not exceed one or two feet, sometimes rises 40 or 50 feet. The tides often rise with dangerous rapidity; as in the Bay of Fundy, and at the mouths of the Indus and the Ganges.

44. The sea, when viewed near land, is generally of a greenish *colour*, as in the German Ocean; but when viewed out of soundings, is of a beautiful deep blue. The occasional red colour of the sea, as of the Red Sea, is said to be produced by myriads of minute animalculæ of a peculiar species. In some parts of the Mediterranean the sea is occasionally purple; in the Gulph of Guinea white; amid the Maldivé islands black.

45. The *phosphorescence* of the sea is a magnificent spectacle. Sometimes a vessel cleaving the dark waters appears to trace a long line of fire, and every stroke of the oar produces flashes of lambent flame. In other cases, thousands of stars seem to float and gambol on the watery surface; at one instant blend-

ing into a single vast sheet of light, at another breaking into luminous waves and dissolving in a brilliant foam. This splendid phenomenon is chiefly owing to innumerable microscopic animals, to electricity, and to animal and vegetable decomposition.

46. The *saltiness* of the ocean chiefly arises from the abundant presence of common salt, and seems to be greatest in the Southern Ocean and the Mediterranean.

47. *Rivers*.—The size and the course of rivers are chiefly determined by the height and direction of the mountain-chains in which they originate, and the extent and nature of the country drained by them and their tributaries. Thus the Rhine, the Danube, and the Rhone, the largest rivers in Europe, rise in the Swiss Alps; the great rivers of Asia—the Ob, the Yang-tse Kiang, the Irawaddy, the Brahmaputra, and the Ganges—originate in some of its lofty chains; in Africa, the Nile has one of its sources in the mountains of Abyssinia; while, in America, the Amazon, the Mississippi, and La Plata rise in the highest mountain ranges in the world.

48. The *velocity* of rivers is, generally speaking, proportionate to the declivity of the ground over which they flow. When river-courses lie among mountains they are subject to sudden breaks, which form *rapids*, or, in the case of precipitous descents, *cataracts*. The velocity of rivers is also accelerated by the volume of water which they convey.

49. The *channel* of rivers is greatly determined by the action of their waters; even rocky beds being eroded in the lapse of years. Thus the Falls of Niagara have receded about eighteen feet in thirty years.

The beds of many rivers, again, become elevated by alluvial deposits in the course of years, as, for example, that of the Po in Italy: while the same cause often produces triangular plains at the mouths of rivers, called *deltas*; the most remarkable of which is the delta of the Nile.

50. Most of the large rivers discharge their waters into the sea by *several mouths*; as the Nile, the Ganges, the Volga, the Niger, the Orinoco, and the Rhine.

51. Some rivers are subject to *periodical floods*; as the Nile, the Ganges, the Indus, and the Mississippi. These are produced by the heavy rains which fall during the wet season in the torrid zone, and by the annual melting of the snow on the mountains from which the rivers rise. These floods, though sometimes destructive, irrigate soils otherwise barren; and in some cases create extensive plains of remarkable fertility.

52. Rivers are occasionally *engulphed*, especially in limestone districts; they sink under ground, flow on for several miles, and then reappear. This is the case with the Rhine, and the Guadiana in Spain. Subterranean streams likewise abound in Greece.

53. *Changes of Land and Water*.—To trace the history, to note the phenomena, and to investigate the causes, of the remarkable interchanges which land and water undergo, together with their mutual action, belongs to the province of geology. We shall here briefly notice them only as they affect geography.

54. Portions of the land, wasted away into *detritus*, are being continually carried down into the sea, and so change the relative level of the land and the ocean. The Gulph of Mexico is rapidly filling up by

the sedimentary deposits from the waters of the Mississippi. The Lake of Geneva is filling up in like manner by Alpine debris carried down into it by the Rhone.

55. The encroachments of the ocean on the land are strikingly shown by the changes on our own coasts, and on those of Holland and Friesland. The chalky heights of Dover and the softer strata along the east coast are annually giving way. Sometimes the invasions of the sea are more rapid and devastating; as in the destruction, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, of the isthmus which united Holland with Friesland, by which the Zuyder-Zee was formed.

56. *Earthquakes.*—Earthquakes are powerful agents in changing the aspect of a country. Thus in 1755, Lisbon was in a great measure destroyed by one of the most awful earthquakes that ever visited Europe: the new mole suddenly sank into a hideous abyss, and on its former site there are now 100 fathoms of water. The earthquakes that desolated Calabria in 1783, depressed the land in many places, in others opened extensive fissures, in others effected partial elevations. In 1797, Upper Peru was terribly convulsed, and the face of the country totally changed. In 1811, violent earthquakes shook the valley of the Mississippi, by which lakes of considerable extent disappeared, and new ones were formed. Earthquakes in South America, during 1822-3, permanently raised the level of the land to heights varying from two to seven feet, over an area, extending from the base of the Andes to the sea, of not less than 100,000 square miles.

57. *Volcanoes*.—Most of the phenomena of earthquakes are the consequences of volcanic fire. At present there are nearly two hundred active volcanoes in different parts of the world. Tierra del Fuego, Peru, Chili, and New Granada are filled with them. Numerous islands in the Pacific are volcanic. Java alone contains thirty-eight. In Europe, a great volcanic zone traverses Greece, Italy, Germany, and France; but it is no longer active in the two latter countries. Iceland abounds in volcanoes; of which Hekla, though not the most considerable, is the best known. Several of the most lofty mountains of South America are active volcanoes. Volcanic rocks prevail over the whole table-land of Mexico; and there, amid other cones, rises the lofty Popocateptl, whose elevation exceeds 17,000 feet. But the most remarkable, perhaps, is the volcano of Jorullo, formed as recently as 1759. In one night there issued from the earth, in the midst of more than two thousand burning apertures, called *hornitos* or ovens, six vast mountain masses rising to heights varying from 300 to nearly 1700 feet above the original level of the plain; constituting, says Humboldt, "one of the most remarkable physical revolutions in the annals of our globe."

SECTION III.

THE ATMOSPHERE.

58. The extent, the weight, the composition, and the mechanical properties of the atmosphere; the

formation of clouds, fogs, rain, snow, and dew, and indeed the whole range of meteorological phenomena, are points of interest in physical geography: but we must here be content to consider only one or two of them.

59. A portion of the atmosphere exposed to the sun's rays becomes heated, expands, and, being thus made lighter than before, ascends; while the surrounding air, being colder and heavier, rushes in to supply its place. The current of air thus produced is called *wind*. Winds are generally divided into three classes—*permanent*, *periodical*, and *variable*.

60. The permanent winds extend nearly thirty degrees on each side of the equator, and blow almost always in the same direction, namely, from the east. They are usually called *trade winds*, because of the valuable assistance they render to navigation. They are caused by the higher temperature, and the greater rotatory motion of the equatorial regions of the earth. To supply the place of the air which is continually ascending, as already explained, from the torrid zone, continual currents move from the colder regions towards the equator. These regions having a slower rotatory motion than the equatorial, the currents which proceed thence are, in fact, left behind when they reach the equator; and since the earth rotates *towards* the east, they appear to move, as already stated, *from* the east. Since, however, their original direction was towards the equator,—that is, from the north or from the south,—they do not blow due westward except at the equator itself: at the northern tropic, they blow from the north-east, and at the

southern, from the south-east, varying a point or two of the compass either way. If the great equatorial band of the earth were covered with water, the trade winds would constantly and regularly blow in the direction here stated. But the unequal and varying temperature produced by the interposition of large tracts of land, of snow-clad mountains, and of heated plains of sand, diverts them from their course, and often subjects them to sudden and great irregularities. Hence it is that the trade winds are more constant and regular in the Pacific than in the Atlantic, and in the Atlantic than in the Indian Ocean.

61. These irregularities give rise to the *periodical* winds, which change with the changing seasons. The most important of these are the *Monsoons*, which chiefly prevail in the Indian Ocean. From April to October they blow from the S.W.; during the other six months, the regular trade wind from the N.E. resumes its course. When these changes take place, violent tempests and thunder storms ensue. The N.E. monsoon is produced by the same causes as the general trade wind. The S.W. monsoon appears to be occasioned by the great rarefaction of the air over the extensive regions of Eastern Asia when the sun is north of the equator, and the rushing in of the dense air of the Indian Ocean to occupy the place of the ascending current. The *land* and *sea breezes*, which are common on tropical sea-coasts, especially the latter, are produced by the various differences of temperature between the land and the sea; which give rise to several currents, in the manner already explained.

62. In temperate climates the winds are *variable*,

in consequence of their depending on several causes, which very variously affect the atmospheric equilibrium: of these causes electrical changes in the atmosphere are the most frequent and influential.

63. There are also several other winds of a local and peculiar character; such as the *Sirocco*, in the south of Spain and Italy; the *Harmattan*, blowing periodically from the Sahara towards the Atlantic; the *Simoon* and *Samiel*, peculiar to the burning deserts of Africa and Arabia.

64. The *velocity* of wind varies from one to a hundred miles an hour. At 10 miles an hour, the wind is called a breeze; at 20, a gale; at 50, a storm; and at 80, a hurricane.

65. *Climate*.—It has been estimated that, if the entire surface of the earth were divided into 100 equal parts, the torrid zone would contain about 40; each of the temperate about 26; and each of the frigid about 4 only. These zones were subdivided by the ancient geographers into "*climates*:" their breadths vary with the latitude; and their number and situation are regulated by the length of the longest day. There are 24 from the equator to each of the polar circles, determined by the difference of *half an hour* in the longest day in each; and 6 from each polar circle to the poles, determined by the difference of a *month*. But this artificial division of the earth is now little regarded. The climate or mean temperature of a place cannot be determined, except in a general sense, by its distance from the equator. To know it accurately, we must be made acquainted with several other particulars of a local nature. Humboldt has brought to light some general

truths by means of certain isothermal lines, or lines of equal heat, which he has traced on the surface of the globe: these we shall consider presently under another head.

66. The *distribution of heat on the earth's surface* is greatly modified by winds, by the geological structure of soils, by the distribution of land and water, by mountains and plains, by seas and rivers, by the elevation of the place above the level of the sea, and even in some measure by the degree of cultivation. All soils are not heated equally soon; and while one quickly parts with its acquired heat, another retains it for a long time. Clayey and marshy grounds, and those impregnated with salt, cool the atmosphere; but light, sandy, calcareous soils increase heat. The nearness of the sea affects temperature in all climates, by equalizing it. Hence the extremes of heat and cold are not so great in islands as on continents, under the same parallels of latitude. So, also, the intersection of continents by arms of the sea, tends to mitigate alike the fervour of summer and the rigour of winter. Mountainous regions are colder than their latitude would lead us to expect; while regions in the neighbourhood of burning deserts, or in sheltered valleys, are warmer. The Alps contribute to render the climate of Italy delightful, by sheltering it from the cold north winds; but the Altaian mountains, south of Siberia, cut it off from the tropical heats, and render the cold of that country very intense. Had there been a great mountain chain in Sahara, that desert would have been a fertile plain; since the snow-clad summits would have cooled the atmosphere, and the country would have been watered by

the mountain streams. The great cold of Central and Southern Russia is owing principally to the absence of a mountain-chain, which would shelter them from the chilling blasts of the Arctic Ocean.

67. A powerful cause in determining the temperature of a place is its *elevation above the level of the sea*. A person in the middle of the torrid zone, if elevated 16,000 feet above this level, would find himself, as far as cold and climate are concerned, transported to the frozen regions of the frigid zone. Terrestrial heat is chiefly caused by the sun's reflected rays, and hence is greater in valleys and plains than on mountains and elevated surfaces.

68. The *cultivation of the soil* gradually affects its temperature. A region shrouded in primeval forests, or covered with swamps and marshes, will have a different temperature when cleared and drained. In hot climates, forests tend to cool the air; but in frigid regions to elevate the temperature, by defending the soil from chilling blasts. The draining of marshes promotes the salubrity of a region.

69. Climate depends in some degree upon *moisture* as well as upon temperature. The humidity of any climate is indicated by its annual amount of rain, by the difference of its quantities at different seasons of the year, by its dews and fogs. Rain is generally more copious at the equator than at the poles, at the sea coast than on land, and in mountains and high grounds than in plains. In the torrid zone, a small thick rain falls every day on that side of the equator on which the sun is, but generally ceases during the night. Yet in this zone there are tracts where rain seldom or never falls; such as the Sahara of

Africa, the low coasts of Caraccas, and the desert shore of Peru between 15° and 30° S. lat. More rain falls in summer than in winter in all latitudes; but in the temperate zones, the rains of winter are more frequent than those of summer, though less in quantity.

70. *Climate of Europe.*—The climate of the great divisions of the earth's surface is determined by these general principles. The whole of Europe, (with the exception of parts of Lapland, Sweden, Norway, and Northern Russia,) being situated within the temperate zone, suffers but very little from the extremes of heat and cold. The south-western extremity is the hottest region; the heat diminishes rapidly as we advance eastward. The west of Europe has generally a moist atmosphere. The whole continent admits of a two-fold division in respect of climate: first, into an Oceanic, an Asiatic, and an African side; and secondly, into a southern, a middle, and a northern zone. The zones determine generally the nature, times and duration of the seasons: the sides regulate in great measure the vegetable productions. The average temperature of Europe exceeds that of Asia and America under the same latitudes; probably because its general elevation is less than of those countries; because its surrounding seas are warmer than the oceans which encompass them; and because the gulph-stream in the Atlantic not only brings a warm current towards Europe from the torrid zone, but also repels from its shores the ice of the Arctic Ocean.

71. *Climate of Asia.*—Nearly all the circumstances which unite in giving a mild climate to

Europe, are reversed in the case of Asia. Its northern regions lie within the Arctic circle. The north winds, unobstructed by mountains, blow over plains of ice; and their cooling influence is not counterbalanced by hot deserts of sand in the southern portion of the continent; there being no land under the equator, in the direction of the length of Asia, except the narrow strips of Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, and Gilolo. The position of the mountain ranges, again, and the general elevation of the whole continent above the level of the sea, diminish the temperature; nor are there any great seas on the western side to equalise it. Consequently, Asia experiences the extremes of temperature; the winter is excessively cold, and the summer is excessively hot.

72. *Climate of Africa*.—By far the greater part of Africa lies within the torrid zone, and the tropical climate of these regions influences those adjacent, with the exception only of that strip of Barbary which is protected by the Atlas Mountains from the hot winds of the desert, and of a portion of Hottentot-land protected by mountains near the Cape. The year is divided into the dry and rainy seasons. The regions which have no rain form a zone of considerable breadth; one principal cause of the high temperature of the whole continent. The well-watered regions abound in luxuriant vegetation; but the united heat and moisture are exceedingly unwholesome to man.

73. *Climate of America*.—The climate of America is nearly as remarkable for cold as that of Africa for heat. Many causes produce this result: a very principal one is the extraordinary elevation of the land above the level of the sea. The vast mountain-

chains, again, whose summits are covered with perpetual snow, greatly reduce the temperature. The Andes, by intercepting the moisture of the trade winds as they blow from the east, cause copious rain on their east side and drought on the western, and in other ways greatly affect the general climate. The great indentation of the sea between North and South America; the huge forests, traversed by immense rivers; the absence of large sandy deserts, which easily become heated by a tropical sun; all serve to make America a cold country. A large portion of North America, moreover, expands within the Arctic circle. Sweeping over such a country, the north-west wind, which prevails in North America during the winter, becomes intensely cold; and northern blasts often make sudden inroads upon the tropical regions. Additional causes, such as the narrowing of the land, contribute to increase the rigour of the seasons in South America; especially as we approach Cape Horn. The whole of America, with little exception, is remarkable for its extreme moisture, and, consequently, its profuse vegetation.

SECTION IV.

DISTRIBUTION OF VEGETABLES.

74. Vegetables range over the whole face of the globe, from pole to pole; from the towering summit of the Andes, where the lichen creeps over the hardest rocks, to the bosom of the ocean, where we meet

with floating meadows of sea-weeds. Some vegetables delight in great heat, others flourish best in cold. Some require the extreme of moisture, others draw their sustenance from the arid rock and the burning sand. The geographical differences which vegetables present, depend almost entirely on the different degrees of heat, light, and moisture which they receive, as well as on the nature of the soil whence they derive nourishment, and the influence of ever-varying atmospheric phenomena.

75. It is in *the torrid zone* that vegetables are found in the greatest vigour, variety, and beauty. There the herbaceous plant of other zones becomes a shrub, and the shrub a tree. There we find the sugar-cane, the coffee-tree, the palm, the bread-fruit tree, the immense baobab, the date, cacao, vanilla, nutmeg, and the most delicate spices. The forest trees are often covered with a profusion of parasitical plants of the most brilliant colours and the most aromatic odours. At the same time, in consequence of the prodigious height to which whole regions are elevated in the tropics, and the reduced temperature of that elevation, the productions of the more temperate and colder regions are also found here. Cypressess, firs, dates, barberries, and alders, which resemble those of our own country, cover the mountainous districts of the south of Mexico, as well as the chain of the Andes under the equator.

76. Vegetation is greatly determined by latitude. In *the temperate regions*, as we recede from the equator, we find the rosaceous plants, as the rose itself; the raspberry and the bramble, the apple, the pear, and the mountain ash, the almond and the peach, the

apricot, the plum, the cherry, and the laurel. Here are also the cruciferous plants, as the radish, the cabbage, the turnip, cress, mustard, and rape: and the umbelliferous plants, of which some are poisonous, as hemlock and water dropwort; others are esculents, or good for food, as celery, carrots, and parsnips; many yield aromatic fruits, as caraway, coriander, and anise; a few secrete a fetid gum resin, as galbanum and assafoetida. As we travel northward, we successively meet the various dates, the chesnut, and the beech; the fir, the cedar, and the pine; the poplar and the willow, the alder and the birch. Verdant meadows of soft grasses, and smiling fields of waving corn, intersperse and beautify the landscape. The tropical parasites disappear before plants whose fleshy roots draw their sustenance from the soil; the trunks of aged trees are clothed with mosses, parasitic fungi creep round decaying vegetables of larger growth, and the waters abound with numerous species of confervæ, which float in stagnant pools or sluggish streams in the form of green entangled threads.

77. As we enter *the frigid regions*, all these gradually dwindle and disappear; and grasses, mosses, and lichens are the last retreats of vegetable life. The birch, which is the hardiest of trees, ceases to grow in latitude 70° ; while beyond the region of lichens, vegetation is arrested by perpetual snow; although even here, if a southern aspect chance to thaw for four or five days any cleft in a rock, a few hardy specimens of *ranunculus glacialis* venture to bloom.

78. The isothermal lines, to which we have al-

ready referred, have been chiefly determined by the growth of particular plants. Near the equator they coincide generally speaking with the parallels of latitude ; but as they recede thence, their course becomes very irregular. An isothermal line of any given temperature will recede farther from the equator in Europe than it will either in America or Asia, from the causes already mentioned under the head of climate; and, in like manner, in passing through the maritime parts of Europe, and the adjacent islands, it will recede farther from the equator than either in the continental parts or in elevated regions. The isothermal lines of 78° Fahr., 68° Fahr., 59° Fahr., 50° Fahr., 41° Fahr., and 32° Fahr. divide the earth's surface, in each hemisphere, into seven vegetable zones.

1. The region of the Spices, a regular zone extending 20° on each side of the equator, with a mean temperature, varying from 81° Fahr. at the equator to 78° on its northern and southern borders.
2. The region of the Sugar-cane, whose mean temperature ranges from 78° to 68° Fahr.
3. The region of the Olive and Fig, from 68° to 59° Fahr.
4. The region of the Wine-grape, from 59° to 50° Fahr.
5. The region of the Oak and Wheat, from 50° to 41° Fahr.
6. The region of the Fir, Pine, and Birch, from 41° to 32° Fahr.
7. The region of Lichens and Mosses, extending from the isothermal line of 32° Fahr. towards the poles, until vegetation ceases.

The above trees and plants are not confined to these zones ; but it is in these that they attain their greatest perfection.

79. In ascending a lofty mountain, particularly in a warm country, we may expect to meet with the

vegetables of different climates. If the mountain be near the equator, we might theoretically expect to find its base encircled by the aromatic productions of the torrid zone ; on its sides, the sugar-cane and coffee-tree of the tropics ; higher up, the olive and fig of Spain, Italy, and Turkey ; higher still, the vines of France and Germany ; next, the oaks, elms, and beeches of England and the north of Europe ; then, the firs and pines of Scotland and Scandinavia ; and, lastly, the lichens and mosses of Lapland. Approximations to this theoretical distribution actually exist ; as on the Peak of Teneriffe, Mount Ararat, and Mount Etna.

SECTION V.

DISTRIBUTION OF ANIMALS.

80. Like vegetables, animals are adapted to different climates, soils, and localities : some are confined to special regions ; others are distributed over nearly the whole surface of the globe. The native animals, again, of one region often admit of transportation to other countries ; where, however, they generally undergo considerable changes, and pass into numerous varieties. Subject to these varieties, the ox, the horse, and the hog are found from the equator to the polar circles ; though within the frigid zones, the horse and the ox degenerate and disappear. The sheep, the goat, and the dog extend over the whole habitable globe.

81. The earth may be divided into fourteen zoo-

logical kingdoms. The first includes all Europe and Asia within 60° N. lat. Its principal animals are the polar bear, the rein-deer, the glutton, the lemming, and the hamster. The true Greenland whale and the narwhal are confined to the arctic seas. The birds that constantly reside in the arctic regions are very few; but, during the short summer, the swarms of insects are infinite, and a large number of European and Asiatic birds resort thither to prey upon them and to breed.

82. The second kingdom includes Europe generally, and parts of Western Asia and Northern Africa. Its most characteristic is the urus ox. Other quadrupeds are the brown bear, the ibex, the stag, the roe, and the fallow-deer. The horse and the ox, although originally imported, here attain their greatest perfection. The more characteristic birds are the bearded vulture of the Alps, the imperial and royal eagles, several species of falcons, and the great and little bustards. The red grouse is peculiar to the British Islands.

83. The third kingdom includes all Asia, between the Altaian and Himalayan chains. Its chief animals are the yak, the argali, the onagar or wild ass, the wild horse, the Thibetian musk, and the jerboa. Its birds are little known. China abounds with gold and silver pheasants.

84. In Southern China, Cambogia, Siam, the Birman Empire, Hindoostan, and Ceylon, which constitute the fourth kingdom, we find the tiger, the panther, the Asiatic elephant, and the long-armed ape, the peacock, the giant argus, and the hornbills, the Gangetic crocodile, the python, and the cobra de

capello. This kingdom also possesses the one-horned rhinoceros, the hunting leopard, the Malayan bear, and the ursine sloth, the slow lemur, the short-tailed pangolin, the Brahmin bull, the wild buffalo, and several species of antelopes and deer. To these we must add the pigmy and Indian musks. And among its birds we must not omit the jungle fowl, the Bankiva cock, the hornbills, and the gigantic adjutant bird.

85. The fifth kingdom includes the Philippines, Borneo, the Moluccas, Celebes, Java, and Sumatra. It is the native country of the great orang-outang, the proboscis monkey, the Cochin-China monkey, and numerous others; of the flying lemur, enormous bats, the Indian tapir, and a species of musk. The birds of this kingdom are magnificent, especially the lories and sun-birds, together with the elegant pigeons and doves. The seas abound in beautiful shells.

86. The sixth or Chaldeo-Arabian kingdom contains the finest horses, the camel, dromedary, and gazelle. The ostrich traverses its deserts; pheasants and doves inhabit its mountains; the rarest shells are found in the adjacent seas; and the pearl fisheries of the Persian Gulf are unrivalled.

87. New Holland, Papua, Van Diemen's Land, and New Zealand are the native region of the kangaroo, ornithorhynchus, and the sea-urchin; of the birds of paradise, the honey-suckers, and parrots innumerable. This kingdom abounds in very peculiar genera of quadrupeds and birds. The shores swarm with every variety of fish; shell-fish attain extraordinary size and beauty.

88. In Africa, south of the Atlas mountains, and in the Island of Madagascar, we find the camelopard, the hippopotamus, the two-horned rhinoceros, the African lion, the leopard, the African elephant, the zebra and quagga, the pongo, and the larger baboons, and a great variety of antelopes. The varieties of birds are numerous; they are adorned with the richest and most brilliant plumage. The dodo, now extinct, belonged to this division of the earth. The crocodile and the cayman, as well as poisonous serpents, abound. The land shells of Africa and its locusts are numerous. The *termes bellicosus*, an insect somewhat allied to the ant, is remarkable for the large and substantial mansions of clay which it constructs.

89. We now pass to the New World. Most of the American animals are peculiar; as the alligator, the boa constrictor, and the rattlesnake.

90. In that portion of America which lies between 50° N. and the pole, including Greenland, we find the musk-ox, the black American bear, the western wolf, the wolverine, the rein-deer, morse-deer, the marmot, the squirrel, and the lemming. Many kinds of hawks, owls, and bustards are peculiar to this kingdom. Most of the natatores, or swimming birds, are found here.

91. The tenth zoological kingdom includes all the British possessions south of lat. 50°, the country west of the Rocky Mountains, between Queen Charlotte's Sound and New Mexico, and all the United States as far as lat. 30° N. This is the region of the grisly bear, the bison, the wapeti, and the prong-buck. Here we find the Virginian opossum and the

beaver. This kingdom is distinguished by the number of its rodentia, or gnawing quadrupeds. Its most conspicuous birds are the wild turkey, Washington's eagle, the American pelican, many falcons and hawks, humming birds, several peculiar species of grouse, herons, spoonbills, and storks. The alligator, properly so called, abounds in the valley of the Mississippi. The serpents are numerous; the rattlesnake being the most remarkable.

92. In equinoctial America we find a great variety of apes with prehensile tails; the jaguar, puma, tapia, capybara, agouti, and guinea-pig. The rivers swarm with the manati, and many remarkable fishes, as the electric gymnotus, the soldier loricaria, and the salmo rhombeus. This region is distinguished by the splendid plumage of its birds, among which the humming birds, the retired trogons, the ultramarine parrot, and various macaws are the most conspicuous. The magnificent king-vulture, the destructor and harpy eagles, belong to this region, as also the enormous goat-suckers. We must not omit to mention the bell-bird, the toucans, and aracarís, the rhea, and the serpent-eater, the boat-bill, the American mycteria, the scarlet ibis, the trumpeter, and the jacana. This region abounds with snakes, with the formidable constrictor, the beautiful canine, and garden boas, the Peruvian and mourning snakes, the rattle-snake, and the virulent bushmaster. The butterflies and moths are noted for their size and the splendour of their colours, and the singular lantern-fly for its brilliant phosphorescence. The large bird-catching spider and the biting scolopendra are formidable insects.

93. The Mexican region constitutes a peculiar zoological kingdom. Here the fauna¹ of North and South America meet. Here, says Dr. Richardson, the wolf of a northern climate ranges in the same forest as the monkey of a tropical region; the bunting and the titmouse nestle near the parrot and the trogon; the phalarope of the north searches for its food on the same beach with the jacana and the boat-bill of Brazil. But some species are peculiar to this region; as the Mexican wolf, certain weasels and martens, and more than half its birds; although it produces but one new genus, uniting the tyrant-shrikes with the caterpillar-eaters. Its lakes contain that singular siren called by the Mexicans axocotl.

94. The elevated regions of Bolivia and Chili possess a peculiar fauna, which has been but imperfectly explored. The more remarkable animals are the guanaco, the alpaca, and the vicuña—the “camels” of South America; and the gigantic condor, which inhabits the snowy solitudes of the Andes.

95. The fauna of the pampas of Buenos Ayres and the south of Chili has been also little explored. This district abounds in wild horses and sheep, originally introduced by the Spaniards. Its foxes seem to be peculiar. Its birds are the American ostrich, the wingless Patagonian penguin, and the genus *pachyptila*, which is not dissimilar from the petrels. Many species of seals are found on its coasts.

96. Thus have we imperfectly sketched the natural distribution of animals over the whole surface of the globe, omitting the results of domestication.

¹ The animals peculiar to a country constitute its *fauna*.

SECTION VI.

GEOGRAPHY OF MANKIND.

97. *Varieties of the Human Race.*—Man appears to be the only creature that is naturally capable of inhabiting all possible varieties of situation and climate on the earth's surface. These, however, react upon him, and produce corresponding varieties in his physical constitution. How different a being is the Esquimaux, who, in his burrow amid northern ices, gorges himself with the blubber of whales, from the spare Numidian, who pursues the lion under a vertical sun! And how different from these—the skin-clad fisherman of the icebergs, and the naked hunter of the Sahara—are, on the one hand, the pampered inmates of Eastern harems; on the other, the energetic and intellectual inhabitants of the cities of Europe! Moral influences concur to widen these differences. "Let us imagine for a moment," says Dr. Pritchard, "a stranger from another planet to visit our globe, and to contemplate and compare the manners of its inhabitants; and let him first witness some brilliant spectacle in one of the highly-civilized countries of Europe—the coronation of a monarch—the installation of a St. Louis on the throne of his ancestors, surrounded by an august assembly of peers, and barons, and mitred abbots, anointed from the cruise of sacred oil brought by an angel to ratify the Divine prerogative of kings. Let the same person be carried into a hamlet in Negroland, at the hour when the sable race recreate themselves with dancing

and barbarous music:—let him then be transported to the saline plains over which bald and tawny Mongoles roam, differing but little in hue from the yellow soil of their steppes, brightened by the saffron flowers of the iris and tulip:—let him be placed near the solitary den of the Bushman, where the lean and hungry savage crouches in silence, like a beast of prey, watching with fixed eyes the birds which enter his pitfall, or the insects and reptiles which chance brings within his grasp:—let our planetary traveller be carried into the midst of an Australian forest, where the squalid companions of kangaroos may be seen crawling in procession, in imitation of quadrupeds:—and can it be supposed that such a person would conclude the various groups of beings whom he had surveyed to be the offspring of the same original stock?"

98. The varieties, it must be confessed, are immense. Yet they admit, in the first place, of resolution into classes. Anatomists have endeavoured to divide mankind into groups, by taking the shape of the skull as the chief ground of distinction. Hence the lateral view of the skull taken by Camper, the vertical view of Blumenbach, and the view of the basis of the skull (the lower jaw being removed,) taken by Professor Owen. To obtain a complete view of the character of the head, for the purpose of comparing human varieties, we must have recourse to all of these three views. But the configuration of the skull is only one ground of distinction. The colour of the skin, the quality of the hair, the profile of the face, the varieties and analogies of language, must also be taken into account. Combining all these, we are led

to adopt, upon the whole, the classification propounded by Blumenbach, and to distribute the one universal family into five great varieties; namely, the Caucasian or rather the European, the Mongolian or Asiatic, the Ethiopic or African, the Malayan or Oceanic, and the Transatlantic or American. As regards the colour of the skin, these varieties are, generally speaking, white, yellow, black, brown, and red men.

99. The Caucasian variety includes the whole European family, (except the Laplanders and Finns,) with their descendants in America, &c.; also the nations of Western Asia, as far as the river Oby, the Belur Tag and Himaleh Mountains, and the Ganges; and the people of Northern Africa, Egypt, and Abyssinia. Among this variety, generally speaking, the head is round; the forehead expanded; the face oval; the nose thin, straight, or slightly aquiline; the mouth small; and the chin full and rounded. The hair varies in colour from fair to black, and is generally soft, flowing, or slightly curled; while the colour of the eye ranges from blue to dark brown.

100. The Mongolian variety includes the natives of Asia, beyond the Oby, the Belur Tag and Himaleh Mountains, and the Ganges (except the inhabitants of Malacca); the Kalmucks and Kalkas, whose ancestors spread devastation over a large portion of the earth, under their leaders Attila, Zenghiz Khan, and Timur; and the Manchoos, the conquerors of China. To these must be added the ancient Chinese, the Japanese, the Coreans, and the people of Thibet: together with the inhabitants of the Arctic regions; as the Samoieds, Kamschatdales, Finns, Laplanders,

and Esquimaux. The chief characteristics of this variety are a yellow or olive complexion, a square head, a low and narrow forehead, a broad and flattened face, flat nose, high cheek-bones, wide mouth, thick lips, and pointed chin; while the hair is black, coarse, lank, and thin; and the eyes rise obliquely from the nose to the temple.

101. The Ethiopic variety comprises all the natives of Africa to the south of the Sahara and Abyssinia; also the natives of New Holland, Van Diemen's Land, Papua or New Guinea, New Britain, Solomon's Isles, New Georgia, the New Hebrides, New Caledonia, the Feejee Islands, and several tribes in the Indian Archipelago. The chief characteristics of this variety are a black skin; a narrow head, compressed at the sides; a low and retreating forehead; prominent cheek-bones; a large and monkey-like nose; thick lips, especially the upper one; a small chin; black eyes; long arms; bowed legs; and hair black, coarse, frizzled, and (apparently) woolly.

102. The Malayan variety includes the natives of Malaya, Ceylon, the Asiatic Islands, New Zealand, and Polynesia. In this variety the skin is brown or tawny; the form of the head intermediate, between that of the European and Ethiopic varieties; the forehead rather narrow, but high; the nose of that form which is called bottle-nosed; the hair black, thick, and generally slightly curled.

103. The Transatlantic variety comprises all the native American tribes, except the Esquimaux. As the Malayan variety approximates to the Ethiopic, so does the Transatlantic to the Mongolian. The

beard is scanty; the skin reddish, of a cinnamon hue; the general features Mongolian, but less strongly marked; the hair black, lank, long, and coarse. There are strong resemblances between the aborigines of America and of Eastern Asia, which go far towards elucidating the problem of the peopling of the former country.

104. *Unity of the Human Race.*—"God that made the world and all things therein. . . hath made of *one blood* all nations of men for to dwell on all the face of the earth, and hath determined the times before appointed, and the bounds of their habitation." Of late years a new science has sprung up, which proposes to investigate the questions involved in the origin and distribution of man. All its investigations have hitherto rendered tribute, and, so long as they are rightly prosecuted, will continue to render tribute to the authoritative declarations of Holy Scripture. They concur in asserting and establishing the great truth that *all the varieties of the human race constitute but one family.*

105. No human truth is of greater religious interest than this. In the prophetic mirror of the Apocalypse, the Church, one and catholic, beholds the redeemed brought near to God, out of "every kindred, and tongue, and people, and nation." She surveys "a great multitude, which no man can number, of all nations, and kindreds, and people, and tongues," standing "before the throne and before the Lamb." She sees an "angel flying in the midst of heaven, having the everlasting gospel to preach unto them that dwell on the earth, and to every nation, and kindred, and tongue, and people." She is as-

sured that all mankind are one: one in origin, one in nature, one in destiny. Sin, it is true, has disordered this primal unity, degrading some of our race, as the Australian and the Bushman-Hottentot, to the apparent physical level of the orang and the chimpanzi; and stamping even the Grecian face, that illustrious type of humanity, with the over-bold profile and scornful expression which betray the earthly mark of heathenism.

106. But the Church is endowed with regenerative and re-incorporating powers. She acknowledges every human being as a "neighbour," and is prepared, under God, to reconstitute him a "brother." Reading, in the pure light of heaven, with the clear eye of faith—and as she reads her heart of love grows warm—the promises made to Adam's fallen race in and through Him who is both Son of God and Son of man, she labours on in her "vocation and ministry," until she shall embrace, in her capacious bosom, all whom the Father hath given to His Son; until there shall be "neither Greek nor Jew, circumcision nor uncircumcision, Barbarian, Scythian, bond nor free; but CHRIST shall be all and in all."

107. *Families of Mankind.*—In considering these, we shall begin with the inhabitants of Asia. The Caucasian family includes the mountaineers of the valleys of the Caucasus, the Georgians, the Mingrelians, the Armenians. Of these, the Armenians are by far the most energetic. The languages spoken by this family are very numerous. The second Asiatic family is the *Arabian*; which embraces all the aboriginal inhabitants of Palestine, Asia Minor, Syria, and Arabia, from the east coast of the Medi-

terranean and Red Sea up to the west coast of the Persian Gulph. This family is inferior only to the European in intellectual vigour and civilization. The *Persian* family was early civilized, but has not been progressive. The large *Turkish* or *Scythian* family consists of the Scythians and Parthians of antiquity, and of the true Tartars and Turcomans, with the eastern and western Turks of the moderns, the Usbecks, Tadjuks, and Kirgis. In the south-eastern angle of what is commonly considered to be Persia, and now known by the name of Beloochistan, we find three distinct families, the *Beloochees*, the *Brahoos*, and the *Dehwars*. North of these, and beyond the north-east angle of Persia, we find the *Affghans*, a rude warlike family. Further east, amidst high mountains and narrow valleys, are numerous tribes, but little known, constituting what may be called the *Dard* family. Still travelling eastward, we arrive at that various aggregate of men known as the *Hindoo* family, consisting of not less than eighteen different races. The *Hindoo-Chinese* family includes thirty-two nations, with distinct languages; the chief of which are the Birinese, Aracanese, Peguans, Siamese, Cambojans, and Anans (comprising the Cochin-Chinese and Tonquinese). The *Chinese* family includes a very large portion of mankind; an unimaginative and stereotyped people, but practical and industrious. The *Japanese* family are remarkably independent. The *Corean* family, though physically superior both to the Chinese and Japanese, possess less mental energy and capacity. The country extending hence to the Frozen Ocean (occupying two-thirds of the surface of Asia,) is inhabited by nume-

rous families, (having a general resemblance, yet in many respects very different,) which are loosely classed together as *Mongolian*. The true Monguls have been an impetuous military people—a race of devastating conquerors.

108. The principal European families are the *Iberian*, including the Portuguese, Basques, and Spaniards; the *Italian*, which has produced such men as Cæsar and Cicero, as Dante, Raphael, Columbus, and Napoleon; the *Greek*, whose fame, in its eminent sons, is the echo of the world; the *Turkish*, an oriental and invading race; the *Celts*, inhabiting France, Belgium, a part of Switzerland, and a part of the British Isles; the *German* family, (the most enterprising of the whole human race,) embracing the Swedes, the Norwegians, the Danes, the Dutch, the Germans, (the Bohemians excepted,) and the great bulk of the Scotch and the English; the *Sclavonic*, including the Russians, Poles, Lithuanians, and others; the *Finnish*, comprising the Finns and the Laplanders; the *Hungarians*, who are not easily classed; while in the north-east we find a portion of the *Mongolian* family.

109. The African families are but little known. Not less than two hundred languages are spoken among them. The chief great varieties are the *Hottentot*, the *Kaffer*, the *Abyssinian* (a superior race), the *Egyptian* (represented by the Copts), the *Numidian*, the *Nubian*, and the *Negro*.

110. The natives of America are a very peculiar race of men. Notwithstanding the prodigious diversity of their languages, the Red Men, though ranging over an immense extent of country, exhibit

very few and trifling differences. They are, in many respects, an interesting people, but seem to be incapable of permanent civilization. The Jesuits in Paraguay wrought many beneficial changes among them; but these never struck root into the native character of the American Indians, who seem destined to recede and disappear before the invasions of the European families.

CHAPTER II.

EUROPE.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW.

111. *Situation and Limits.*—Europe forms the north-west portion of the old continent; having Asia on its east, and partly on its south border; Africa, separated from it by the Mediterranean, on the south; the Atlantic Ocean, separating it from America, on the west; and the Arctic Ocean on the north. It is separated from Asia by the Oural Mountains, Oural River, Caspian Sea, Caucasus Mountains, Black Sea, Sea of Marmora, and Archipelago.

112. The continent of Europe, exclusive of its

islands, lies between 36° and 71° N. lat., and 9° W. and 66° E. long. Its greatest length, from the Oural Mountains, near Orsk in Russia, to Cape St. Vincent in Portugal, is nearly 3400 miles; its greatest breadth, from North Cape to Cape Matapan, in Greece, is 2450 miles.

113. *Seas*.—The Atlantic Ocean forms the North Sea or German Ocean, the Irish Sea, the English Channel, and the Bay of Biscay; all on the west coast. Two branches of the ocean penetrate the continent, and form two large inland seas, the Baltic and the Mediterranean. The Arctic Ocean forms the White Sea, and some smaller gulphs on the north coast, as the Gulph of Kara. The Black Sea lies between European Turkey, Russia, and Asia Minor.

114. *Gulphs and Bays*.—The North Sea forms several remarkable arms, as the Zuyder-Zee, the Skager-Rack, and the Cattegat. The southern outlet of the Irish Sea is called St. George's or the Irish Channel. The principal gulphs of the Baltic are those of Bothnia, Finland, Riga, and Dantzic. Many portions of the Mediterranean receive local names; of which the chief are the Gulphs of Valencia, Lyons, and Genoa, the Ionian Sea (including the Gulph of Tarento,) between Southern Italy, Sicily, and Greece, the Adriatic Sea, an inlet of which is called the Gulph of Venice, the Archipelago, anciently the *Ægean Sea*, and the Sea of Marmora. The chief gulph of the Black Sea is the Sea of Azof. The Caspian Sea is, properly, only the largest lake in the world. The White Sea forms the Gulphs or Bays of Onega and Archangel.

115. *Straits*.—The European straits are very numerous. The following are among the most important with reference to navigation. The Straits of Waigatz or Kara, between Russia and Nova Zembla; the Sound, between Sweden and Zealand; the Great Belt, between Zealand and Funen; the Little Belt, between Funen and Jutland; the Straits of Dover, between England and France; of Gibraltar, between Spain and Africa; of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia; of Messina, between Italy and Sicily; the Hellespont or Dardanelles, joining the Archipelago and the Sea of Marmora; the Straits of Constantinople, joining the Sea of Marmora and the Black Sea; of Caffa, joining the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof.

116. *Islands*.—In the Atlantic and its branches: Great Britain and Ireland, with their dependent groups; Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney, known as the Channel Islands; and the Feroe Islands. To these must be added, notwithstanding their great distance, the Azores; on the principle that islands belong to the nearest continent: while, for the same reason, Iceland must be assigned to America.

117. In the Mediterranean and its branches: the Balearic Isles (Majorca, Minorca, Ivica), Corsica, Sardinia, the Lipari Isles, Sicily, Elba, Malta, the Illyrian Isles, the Ionian Isles (Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, &c.), Candia, the Grecian Archipelago, (Negropont, &c.)

118. In the Baltic: Zealand, Funen or Fyen, and Falster, composing, with others, the Danish Archipelago; Oland and Gottland, belonging to

Sweden ; Dago, Oesel, and the Aland Isles, belonging to Russia.

119. In the Arctic Ocean and its branches : East Waagen, Hindoen, Nova Zembla (consisting of two islands), and Spitzbergen (the most northerly inhabited spot in the world).

120. *Continental Outline*.—Europe is distinguished from all the other continents of the globe by the great irregularities of its shape and surface; and by the great number of its inland seas, gulphs, harbours, peninsulas, promontories, and headlands. This circumstance tends not only to influence the climate and the natural products of Europe, but to promote navigation and commerce, giving to the inhabitants that spirit of maritime enterprise by which they have so long been distinguished.

121. *Peninsulas*.—The general outline of Europe is singularly peninsular. Its largest peninsula consists of Norway, Sweden, and Lapland. The second in size consists of Spain and Portugal, and is often called "The Peninsula." Next to these rank Italy, Turkey, and Greece, with the sub-peninsula of the Peloponnesus or Morea, and others of less magnitude or less clearly defined.

122. *Capes*.—The capes of Europe are numerous. The principal are North Cape, in Lapland; Cape Skaw, in Denmark; Land's End, in England; Cape Wrath, in Scotland; Cape Clear, in Ireland; Cape la Hogue, in France; Capes Ortegal and Finisterre, in Spain; Capes Roca and St. Vincent, in Portugal; Cape Spartivento, in Italy; and Cape Matapan, in Greece.

123. *Mountains*.—Nearly two-thirds of the sur-

face of Europe consists of an immense plain; the remainder is partly mountainous and partly hilly. The plain occupies the east part of the continent; and the hilly and mountainous countries extend along its western and southern shores. The mountains of Europe constitute several distinct systems.

124. The Alps compose the great central table-land of Europe, covering one-sixth of its whole area. Their principal branches spread over Switzerland, France, Germany, the Austrian Empire, Turkey, Greece, and Italy. The Apennines, Carpathians, Balkan, and others, all belong to, or are intimately connected with, this system. In the Pennine Alps, we find Mount Blanc, the highest mountain in Europe, being 15,730 feet above the level of the sea. The Apennines traverse the whole length of Italy. In the southern Apennines, we find Vesuvius, near Naples; and in the insular Apennines, *Ætna* and *Stromboli*; the former in Sicily, the latter in the Lipari Isles: these three are active volcanoes. The Eastern Alps, extending from Croatia to the Black Sea, include the *Hæmus* Mountains in Turkey; and the mountains of Greece, as the *Pindus* chain, *Olympus*, and *Parnassus*; mountains not remarkable for their height, but rich in classical associations. The Carpathians stretch through Hungary; they are of moderate height only, but extremely rugged.

125. The Pyrenees, which separate France from Spain, extend through Spain, Portugal, and a part of France. They have many valleys, which are chiefly transversal. The oaks which clothe the sides of the hills impart a beauty to the Pyrenees which the fir-covered steeps of the Alps do not possess;

but they are of difficult access, and only few of the passes are generally practicable.

126. The Dofrine mountains are the highest of the Scandinavian system, which embraces all the mountains of Norway, Sweden, and Lapland. This system differs from the Alps and Pyrenees, in not being a continued chain of summits, but a succession of table-lands, from twenty to thirty miles across.

127. *Plains and Valleys*.—A large portion of Europe, as already observed, consists of an immense plain but little elevated above the level of the sea, interspersed only here and there with a few detached hill-ranges of no great magnitude. Next to this rank the plains watered by the Lower Danube—Wallachia and Bulgaria; by the Middle Danube—Hungary; and by the Upper Danube—Bavaria. The third in size is the magnificent valley of the Po. The valleys of the Rhine between Bâle and Mentz, of the Upper Rhone in Switzerland, and of the Drave in Carinthia, are remarkable for their extent and beauty. Those of Norway and Scotland are long and narrow, and their bottoms frequently contain lakes of corresponding shape.

128. Although Europe presents no such deserts as some other parts of the surface of the globe, it contains several large sandy infertile plains: as the Steppes of Ryn, of the Oural, of the Crimea, and of Petchora, in Russia; the wilds of Sweden, Norway, and Lapland; the puztas of Hungary; similar districts in the kingdom of Hanover, in Russia, in the departments of the Landes and the Gironde in France, and in the Neapolitan province of Terra di Bari.

129. *Rivers.*—The great watershed of Europe, or the ridge dividing the waters which flow into the Mediterranean or the Black Sea from those which flow into the Baltic and the North Sea, runs through the continent in the general direction of north-east and south-west. The courses of the principal rivers are therefore, for the most part, south-east and north-west. The Wolga, Danube, Dniepr, and Don flow in the south-east direction; the Rhine and the Dwina in that of north-west. Nearly all the great rivers of Europe are in the east and north-east parts of the continent. Western Europe has but few rivers that have a course of more than 500 or 600 miles. Still, however, this part of the continent is extremely well watered; and some of the shortest rivers, as the Thames and the Shannon, afford the greatest facilities to internal navigation and commerce.

130. If the length of the Danube be represented by 100 parts, the length of the other principal rivers will be—Wolga 130, Dnieper 72, Don 69, Rhine 49, Elbe 42, Vistula 41, Loire 37, Tagus 32, Rhone 38, Tiber 10, and Thames 9, of those parts. The Wolga belongs rather to Asia than to Europe. The Danube is in all respects the first of European rivers, and, as it flows through several countries, shall be described under this general head.

131. *The Danube.*—The Danube originates in two streams on the east declivity of the Black Forest, in the Grand Duchy of Baden. It passes through the territories of Baden, Wirtemberg, Bavaria, and the Austrian Empire; divides Turkey from Wallachia, Moldavia, and Russia; and falls into the

Black Sea, after a very winding course, generally eastward, extending from 1750 to 1800 miles. In its course, it receives thirty navigable rivers and a vast number of inferior streams; the principal being the Isur, Lech, Inn, Drave, Save, Theiss, and Pruth. The following cities and towns, among many others, stand upon its banks: Ulm, where it first begins to be navigable; Ratisbon; Passau, where it quits Bavaria; Vienna; Gran, once the finest city in Hungary; Buda and Pesth, the first on the right, the second on the left bank, the two being connected by a bridge of boats three quarters of a mile long; Belgrade, on the limits of the Austrian and Turkish empires; Widin, one of the strongest towns in Turkey; Brahamlov, the sea-port of Wallachia; and Galacz, which, though considerably inland, may be said to be the port of the Danube. The Danube is one of the swiftest rivers in Europe. Were it not for the rapids between Moldova and Gladova, it would be at all times navigable from Ulm to its mouth. Its steam navigation is of paramount importance, especially to the circumjacent regions of the Austrian Empire.

132. *Lakes*.—The largest or the most celebrated lakes of Europe are Lakes Ladoga and Onega, in Russia; Wener, in Sweden; of Geneva and Constance, in Switzerland; Garda and Maggore, in Northern Italy. The English lakes are in high local repute.

133. *Political Divisions*.—The present political divisions of Europe amount to fifty-nine; namely, three empires, sixteen kingdoms, one ecclesiastical state, seven grand duchies, twelve duchies, twelve principalities, four republics, and four free-towns.

134. The empires are Russia, Austria, and Turkey.

135. The kingdoms are Great Britain and Ireland, France, Prussia, Spain, Sweden and Norway, Holland, Belgium, Portugal, Naples and Sicily, Bavaria, Sardinia, Denmark, Saxony, Wirtemberg, Hanover, and Greece.

136. The grand duchies are Baden, Hesse Darmstadt, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Mecklenburg-Strelitz, Oldenburgh, Saxe-Weimar, and Tuscany.

137. The principal duchies are Nassau, Saxe-Coburg, Gotha, and Brunswick, in Germany; Modena, Parma, and Lucca, in Italy.

138. The republics are Switzerland, the Ionian Islands, Cracow, and San Marino.

139. The free towns are Hamburg, Frankfort, Bremen, and Lubeck.

140. Great Britain, France, Russia, Austria, and Prussia are called "The Five Great Powers."

SECTION II.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

141. The British Empire consists of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with the smaller adjacent islands, its colonies, and foreign dependencies. The United Kingdom consists of the two Islands of Great Britain and Ireland. The Island of Great Britain contains England and Wales, and Scotland.

142. *Situation and Boundaries.*—The Islands of Great Britain and Ireland are situated in the North Atlantic Ocean, off the western coasts of continental Europe, opposite the northern parts of France, the Netherlands, Denmark, and the southern parts of Sweden and Norway; between 50° and 59° N. lat., and 2° E. and 11° W. long.

143. England and Wales lies between 50° and $55^{\circ} 50'$ N. lat., and 2° E. and $5^{\circ} 40'$ W. long. It is bounded on the north by Scotland, west by the Irish Sea and St. George's Channel, south by the English Channel, and east by the German Ocean. The figure of England is extremely irregular, approaching nearly to the fanciful representation of the island given by the Romans, as a woman seated upon a rock—the well-known *Britannia*. Its greatest length is about 367 miles, its least 64; the former from the Land's End to the north-east coast of Norfolk, the latter from the head of Solway Firth to Tynemouth. Its area, according to the ordnance survey, (that adopted in parliamentary reports,) is 57,960 square miles. Its population, according to the census of 1841, is 16,030,781.

144. Scotland lies between $54^{\circ} 40'$ and $58^{\circ} 40'$ N. lat., and between $1^{\circ} 48'$ and $5^{\circ} 52'$ W. long. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean, on the west by the Atlantic Ocean and the North Channel, on the south by the Solway Frith and England, on the east by the German Ocean. Its length, from Cape Wrath to the Mull of Galloway, is about 280 miles; and its breadth, from Buchan Ness to the most westerly point in Ross-shire, is 150 miles. Its area is 30,000 square miles. Population, 2,620,184.

145. Ireland lies between $51^{\circ} 19'$ and $55^{\circ} 23'$ N. lat., and between $5^{\circ} 19'$ and $10^{\circ} 28'$ W. long. It is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean, which on the east is called St. George's Channel and the Irish Sea. Its average length is 300 miles; its average breadth 200; its area 81,874 square miles. Population, 8,175,124.

146. *General Description of the Country: England.*—England is generally a level country; but the northern districts are comparatively mountainous. A chain of mountains extends, with few interruptions, along its whole western side. This is of very various breadth and elevation; it is divided by topographers into the Pennine, Cumbrian, Cambrian, and Devonian ranges. The highest summits of the Pennine range are Cross Fell, in Cumberland; Shannon Fell, Great Whernside, Ingleborough, and Pen-y-gant, in Yorkshire; all ranging from 2300 to 2900 feet high. The general aspect of this range is barren and monotonous. The highest summits of the Cumbrian range are Helvellyn, Scafell, Bowfell, Coniston Fell, High Pike, Skiddaw, and Saddleback; from about 2000 to 3000 feet high. The Cumbrian mountains are mostly bold, steep, and rugged; their slopes are covered with a fine green sward; and the scenery of the whole district, which includes the English lakes, is the most romantic in our island. The Cambrian mountains occupy nearly the whole of Wales. Wyddva, the highest pinnacle of the huge mass called Snowdon, is more than 3500 feet high. Caderidris, south of the Snowdon range, is nearly 3000 feet high. Plynlimmon is the largest mountain in Wales in respect of mass, but is not 2500 feet high. The

mountains of Radnorshire, Brecknock, and Glamorganshire complete the Cambrian system; their general aspect is dreary, but they include the most extensive coal and iron deposits in the kingdom. The Devonian range stretches along the south-west of England, between the Bristol and British Channels. The large unreclaimed wastes of Dartmoor and Exmoor are irregular table-lands, interspersed with fertile tracks which include some of the most productive corn-districts in the kingdom. The southern and eastern parts of the island are traversed by different ranges of chalk hills, which include the South Downs of Sussex and the Surrey Downs, both celebrated for their sheep-pastures.

147. The north and north-eastern parts of England are drained into the North Sea by a number of small independent streams; as the Coquet, the Tyne, the Wear, and the Tees. The valley, whose bottom is occupied by the Lakes of Cumberland and Westmoreland, is drained into the Irish Channel, by the Derwent, the Ribble, the Mersey, and the Dee. The vale of York, one of the principal river-vales in the island, is drained by several streams into the estuary of the Humber. The Trent, the third river in England, receives numerous small streams, collectively called the Ouse, and flows, through the counties of Stafford, Derby, Nottingham, and Lincoln, into the Humber. The Teifi and the Towey are the chief rivers of South Wales. The Towey and the Wye, celebrated for its romantic beauty, fall into the Severn. The vale of the Severn is one of the most fertile districts in England. The Severn rises in Montgomeryshire; flows circuitously through

the counties of Salop, Worcester, and Gloucester; receives, among other affluents, the Avons of Warwickshire and Somersetshire; widens below Gloucester into the Bristol channel; and below Bristol falls into the Atlantic Ocean. The vale of Taunton is remarkably fertile, and the climate peculiarly mild. The basin of the Thames occupies an important portion of the central region of England, and is moderately fertile. The Thames is formed by the union of several small streams which rise in the Cotswold Hills in Gloucestershire. Until joined in Oxfordshire by the Thame, it is called the Isis; but then it becomes the Thame-isis, or Thames. Thence it flows eastward, acquiring vast importance by having London on its banks as it approaches the sea; near which it receives the Medway (from Kent, navigable by the largest ships of war up to Chatham); and falls into the German Ocean at the Nore, after a course of 210 miles. Its navigable tributaries are the Kennett, Wey, Lea, and Darent. The marshes of Kent and Sussex are uncommonly rich and productive. We must not omit to notice the fens of Cambridgeshire and Lincolnshire.

148. Sailing along the English coast, we find, among many others, the following principal inlets of the sea and headlands. Solway Frith, between Dumfries and Cumberland, Morecambe Bay, Cardigan Bay, Milford Haven, and the Bristol Channel, on the western coast; Falmouth Harbour, Plymouth Sound, Torbay, and Portsmouth Harbour, on the southern coast; the Wash, Humber Mouth, and Bridlington Bay, on the eastern. The line of the eastern coast is very irregular, yet with but few in-

lets of the sea convenient for harbours; the chief harbours being in the estuaries of rivers. But the west coast, especially towards the north, is everywhere deeply indented with bays, and in many places covered with islands. Among the chief headlands are Holyhead, in Anglesea; Land's End and Lizard Point, in Cornwall; Beachy Head, in Sussex; Dungeness, North Foreland, and South Foreland, in Kent; and Spurn Head and Flamborough Head, in Yorkshire.

149. *General Description of the Country: Scotland.*—In comparison with England, Scotland is barren and mountainous. It is divided by the Frith of Clyde, Loch Lomond, and the Grampians, into the Highlands and the Lowlands. The Highlands again are divided into two unequal parts by the deep narrow valley, through which the Caledonian Canal has been constructed. The mountains of Scotland run, generally, in chains from S. W. to N. E. The most celebrated chain is that of the Grampians; its principal summits are Ben Macdhu, 4890 feet above the level of the sea, the highest of the British mountains; Cairntoul, Cairngorm, and Ben Lomond, ranging from about 3000 to 4000 feet high. Ben Nevis, in Inverness, (4370 feet) is separated from the Grampians by the Moor of Rannoch. The more elevated tracts in the Lowlands include the mountains of Roxburgh, Dumfries, Peebles, Selkirk, and Lanark shires; they afford good pasturage, and are not remarkable for height. Scotland has but few valleys and level tracts; but some of these are extremely fertile, and are well cultivated; as Teviotdale, Tyndale, the How of Fife, and Strathmore.

The rivers of Scotland are more rapid and precipitous than those of England. The Tay is the largest; it widens into the Frith of Tay, and disembogues on the east coast. The Spey is large and rapid; it falls into the Moray Frith. The Tweed falls into the North Sea at Berwick. The Forth also flows in an eastward direction, and widens into the Frith of Forth. The Clyde, though not the largest, is the most important commercial river of Scotland; Larnark, Hamilton, and Glasgow, are situated on its banks: it runs into the Frith of Clyde. The Southern Dee, Nith, and Annan flow into the Solway Frith. The principal lochs, or fresh-water lakes of Scotland, are Loch Lomond, between Stirling and Dumbarton; Loch Ness, in Inverness; Loch Tay, in Perth; and Loch Awe, in Argyle. The coast of Scotland is bold and rocky, and much indented on the west side by arms of the sea, termed *friths*: as Pentland Frith, between Caithness and the Orkneys; the Frith of Tay, between Fife and Forfar; Cromarty Frith, in Ross-shire; Loch Linnh, Loch Eil, and Loch Fine, in Argyleshire; Loch Ryan, in Wigtonshire. The principal headlands are Cape Wrath, in Sutherland; Mull of Cantire, in Argyle; Mull of Galloway, in Wigton; and Kinnaird's Head, in Aberdeen. The larger islands are the Orkney and Shetland Isles, and the Hebrides, off the north and west coasts.

150. *General Description of the Country: Ireland.*—The surface of Ireland is generally speaking flat, yet it frequently rises into low hills. On the east coast, the Mountains of Mourne in Down, and

the Wicklow Mountains, attain considerable elevation; but the mountainous districts are chiefly found in the west, particularly in Kerry, Clare, Galway, Mayo, Sligo, and Donegal. The Macgillicuddy Reeks, in Kerry, are 3400 feet high. The central portion of Ireland is mostly level; consisting of rich cultivated lands and extensive bogs. Ireland is watered by an unusual number of rivers and lakes. The Shannon, flowing through the very centre of Ireland, is navigable throughout nearly its whole course of 220 miles; it falls into the Atlantic Ocean below Limerick. Its junction with the Grand and Royal Canals from Dublin has increased its commercial importance. The Barrow is the second river in Ireland; it falls, with its tributaries, the Suir and the Nore, into Waterford Harbour. Other rivers are the Blackwater, Lee, Bandon, Liffey, Boyne and Foyle. The principal loughs or lakes, are Lough Neagh, in Ulster; Lough Erne, in Fermanagh; Loughs Allen, Ree, and Derg, formed by the Shannon; and the picturesque Lakes of Killarney. The north, south, and west coasts of Ireland abound in fine harbours and roadsteads: the more important are the Estuary of the Shannon; Dingle Bay, on the coast of Kerry; Bantry Bay, south-west of Cork, a most capacious harbour; Cork Harbour, one of the finest in Europe; Waterford Harbour, Donegal Bay, Galway Bay, and many others. There is no good harbour on the east coast; yet we may name the Bay of Dublin. The chief headlands are Dunmore Head on the west, Cape Clear on the south, Loop Head in Clare, and Slyne Head in Galway. The islands, which are of little

importance, lie chiefly along the west coast; Achil, west of Mayo; North Isles of Arran, west of Donegal; South Isles of Arran, in Galway Bay.

151. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The coal-fields of England are of vast extent, and of unspeakable commercial value. They lie in the north and west parts of the island; chiefly in the counties of Durham and Northumberland, in South Lancashire, Staffordshire, Shropshire, and South Wales. Iron, the most useful of all metals, is found in England and Wales, near coal-beds, in quantities almost inexhaustible; especially in South Wales, Staffordshire, Shropshire, Yorkshire, North Wales, and Derbyshire. Tin and copper are abundant in Cornwall. Out of numerous other mineral productions, we may mention rock-salt, limestone, pottery clays, and plumbago. Lead is one of the most valuable mineral products of Scotland. This country also abounds in building materials of the finest description, particularly sandstone. The mineral productions of Ireland are not remarkable.

152. The climate of England is humid; exempt from the extremes of heat and cold, but very variable. Its air is salubrious; bracing in the north, in the south more mild. Its verdure is most luxuriant; its pastures are exceedingly rich. The principal soils are clay, loam, sand, chalk, gravel, and peat. Wheat, oats, and barley, potatoes, and numerous fruit-trees, are cultivated with great success; wheat in the south-east, barley in the midland and eastern counties, oats in the fenny districts of the north. Hops are principally cultivated in Kent and Surrey. The breeds of horses, cattle, sheep, and other useful animals, are equal, if not superior, to any in the world. The salmon, herring, mackerel, and pilchard fisheries are valuable, especially those of Scotland. The vegetable products of Scotland do not differ materially from those of England; the climate, in consequence of the high latitude, is cold, cloudy, wet, and very uncertain. The climate of Ireland is moist to excess, but confers upon it that perennial verdure which well entitles it to the name of the Emerald Isle. The soil of this country is chiefly a fertile loam, resting on a limestone-bed. Its vegetable productions and animals are nearly

the same as those of England: it was once extensively covered with forests.

153. The manufactures of Great Britain are unrivalled in their extent, variety, and value. The cotton manufacture (since 1760) is the greatest: its grand seat is Lancashire; after that Cheshire, Derbyshire, and Yorkshire; also Lanarkshire and Renfrew in Scotland. The woollen manufacture, the oldest in the kingdom, ranks next in value: its chief seats are the West Riding of Yorkshire, Gloucestershire, Wiltshire, Devonshire, Lancashire, and Somersetshire. The other chief manufactures, in order of value, are those of iron and hardware, whose head quarters are Sheffield and Birmingham; also of leather, silk, linen, glass, and earthenware. To these may be added watches and jewellery, hats, paper, and lace. The manufactures of Scotland are thriving. Linen is manufactured in Ireland.

154. The commerce of Great Britain surpasses even that of Carthage and of Tyre of old, of Italy in the middle ages, of Holland in the seventeenth century. Our own manufactures are our chief articles of export; our imports chiefly consist of the peculiar productions (mostly natural, and in their raw state,) of the several countries we trade with. London, "the great emporium of nations," is peculiarly the seat of British commerce with India and China. Liverpool and Bristol are the great seats of the American and West-Indian trades. Bristol, Hull, Newcastle, Whitehaven, and several other towns, are largely engaged in the trade with Spain and Portugal, and the Mediterranean. Hull, Newcastle, Plymouth, Sunderland, and others, are the chief seats of the Baltic trade. Ipswich, Boston, Wisbeach, and others, are the chief ports for corn. Hull, Newcastle, London, Whitby, and Berwick, are engaged in the northern whale-fishery. London, Sunderland, Newcastle, and others, are the great ship-building ports. Scotland shares to a considerable extent in the general trade of the country; she exports largely the manufactures of Glasgow, Aberdeen, Dundee, and their neighbourhoods. The Irish exports consist chiefly of agricultural produce. Cork, Limerick, Waterford, Belfast, and Newry largely participate in the valuable provision trade.

155. The turnpike-roads and canals of England and Wales

are numerous and excellent; but railways are rapidly becoming the most important means of internal communication. Some of the greatest of these are the London and Birmingham, the Great Western, Manchester and Birmingham, Liverpool and Manchester, Grand Junction, London and Brighton, Eastern Counties, and many others; but the slightest details of these gigantic undertakings would exceed our limits. Scotland now possesses good roads; but the country is not adapted for canal navigation: several short railways are in progress. Good common roads are still the chief means of internal communication in Ireland.

156. *Constitution and Government.*—The three estates of the realm are the Nobles, the Clergy, and the Commons. The King (Queen) of England is an hereditary limited monarch; the succession being determined by the Act of Settlement, passed in the reign of William III. "The King's Majesty hath the chief power in this Realm of England, and other his dominions; with whom the chief government of all estates of this realm, whether they be ecclesiastical or civil, in all causes, doth appertain; and is not, nor ought to be, subject to any foreign jurisdiction." (*Article xxxvii.*) The King of England is, according to his just title, "Defender of the Faith, and Supreme Governor of the Church within his dominions." But he is not a "spiritual" person. "We give not to our princes the ministering either of God's word, or of the Sacraments;" but only the prerogative to "rule all estates and degrees committed to their charge by God, whether they be ecclesiastical or temporal, and to restrain with the civil sword the stubborn and evil-doers." (*Ibid.*) The only HEAD of the Catholic Church, of which national churches are members, is our Lord and Master, JESUS CHRIST.

157. The legislative power is vested in the High Court of Parliament, which assembles under the King; who possesses, according to the theory of the constitution, a veto upon any bill which has passed the two houses. The House of Lords is composed of the Lords Spiritual and the Lords Temporal. The Lords Spiritual are the Archbishops and Bishops of the Church of England; together with one Archbishop, and three Bishops of the Church of Ireland, who sit by rotation. The Lords Temporal are the Hereditary Peers of England and of the United Kingdom, 16 representative Peers of Scotland, and 27 Peers of

Ireland. The House of Commons consists of 658 members, elected periodically, chiefly by the middle classes of Great Britain and Ireland, as their representatives. The members sit for the universities, for counties and boroughs. It is the duty of Parliament, "under our most religious and gracious King (Queen) assembled," to consult the advancement of the Divine Glory, the good of the Church, the safety, honour, and welfare of our Sovereign and his dominions; "that all things may be so ordered and settled by their endeavours, upon the best and surest foundations, that peace and happiness, truth and justice, religion and piety, may be established among us for all generations." The Convocation of the Province of Canterbury, (that of York has never been important,) consists of two Houses: the Upper, of the Suffragan Bishops of the Metropolitan; the Lower, of the Deans, Archdeacons, and Proctors for the Cathedral and Parochial Clergy respectively. Convocation is formally summoned by the Archbishop's writ, under consent of the King; but it has been practically prorogued since 1717. The laws made by convocation, in common with those made by ecclesiastical synods and councils, are termed *Canons*.

158. The English Courts of Justice are either general or local. The general courts are those of Common Law, Equity, Bankruptcy, the Insolvent Debtors' Court, the Ecclesiastical Courts, and Courts Maritime. The Common Law Courts are those of the King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer. The Court of Chancery administers Equity. The Ecclesiastical and Admiralty Courts administer the Canon and Civil Law. The principal ecclesiastical courts are the provincial courts of the two archbishoprics, diocesan, and archidiaconal courts, and peculiars. Our limits forbid us to enumerate local courts. To the general courts, however, may be added the courts of assize and gaol delivery, the courts of quarter and general sessions, county courts, &c.; local in sphere, but general in principle.

159. The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge stand at the head of the educational institutions of the empire. The leading Grammar Schools are those of Eton, Westminster, and Winchester; Charterhouse, St. Paul's, Merchant Taylors', Christ's Hospital; to which may be added Rugby, Harrow, and Shrewsbury schools, and others of varying reputation. The Church administers national or primary education, chiefly

through the agency of a valuable incorporated society, by means of parochial and diocesan schools; but probably her most valuable instrument is parochial catechising, brought to bear upon *families*. There are several other educational establishments in the empire of a mixed and inferior character.

160. The laws of Scotland are administered by two supreme courts—the Court of Session and the High Court of Justiciary. Ireland was legislatively united to Great Britain in 1801. The executive government is vested in a Lord-Lieutenant, assisted by a Chief Secretary, who hold their offices during the royal pleasure. The administration of the law is conducted under the Lord Chancellor of Ireland, assisted by the Master of the Rolls, and the Judges, for Ireland, of the Courts of King's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer; upon the same principles as the English system of judicature. The Universities of Scotland are those of St. Andrew's, Glasgow, and Aberdeen, now in the hands of the presbyterians; and that of Edinburgh. Scotland possesses a system of parochial schools, established in 1696. Trinity College, Dublin, stands at the head of the colleges and schools of Ireland; but various discordant systems exist in that distracted island, and the Church maintains her unfriended ground with difficulty.

161. *Civil Divisions of England and Wales*.—England is divided into 52 counties, 12 of which form the Principality of Wales. London is the capital; situated in 51° 30' N. lat., and 5° 48' W. long. Population, 1,465,268.

SIX NORTHERN.

NORTHUMBERLAND.—*Alnwick*; * Newcastle, celebrated for coal; Berwick-upon-Tweed.

DURHAM.—*Durham*, an episcopal city; Sunderland, noted for ship-building; Stockton on the Tees.

YORKSHIRE.—*York*, the seat of an archbishop; Leeds, famous for its woollen trade; Sheffield, for cutlery; Hull, for shipping and commerce; Bradford, for cotton and woollen manufacture; Huddersfield, Halifax, and Wakefield, engaged in the woollen trade; Doncaster, a place for horse-races; Whithy, where Captain Cook was born.

CUMBERLAND.—*Carlisle*, an episcopal city; Whitehaven, whence coals are largely exported.

* County Towns are printed in Italica.

WESTMORELAND.—*Appleby*, Kendal.

LANCASHIRE.—*Lancaster*; Manchester, the great seat of the cotton manufacture, and about to be raised into an episcopal city; Liverpool, the second commercial town in England; Bolton, Preston, Blackburn,—all engaged in the cotton manufacture.

FOUR BORDERING ON WALES.

CHESHIRE.—*Chester*, an episcopal city; Stockport, Macclesfield,—both manufacturing towns.

SHROPSHIRE.—*Shrewsbury*, Bridgnorth, Oswestry, Ludlow. (Shropshire is also called Salop.)

HEREFORDSHIRE.—*Hereford*, an episcopal city; Leominster.

MONMOUTHSHIRE.—*Monmouth*, the birthplace of Henry V.

FOUR EASTERN COUNTIES.

LINCOLNSHIRE.—*Lincoln*, an episcopal city; Boston.

NORFOLK.—*Norwich*, an episcopal city; Yarmouth, a fishing town for mackerel and herrings; Lynn Regis.

SUFFOLK.—*Ipswich*, the birthplace of Cardinal Wolsey; Bury St. Edmonds.

ESSEX.—*Chelmsford*; Colchester; Harwich, a Dutch packet station.

FIVE NORTH MIDLAND.

DERBYSHIRE.—*Derby*, Chesterfield.

NOTTINGHAMSHIRE.—*Nottingham*, lace and silk trade; Newark.

STAFFORDSHIRE.—*Stafford*; Lichfield, an episcopal city; Wolverhampton, iron manufactures; Burton.

LEICESTERSHIRE.—*Leicester*, lace and stocking trade; Loughborough; Melton Mowbray, head-quarters of fox-hunting.

RUTLANDSHIRE.—*Oakham*, Uppingham.

ELEVEN SOUTH MIDLAND.

WORCESTERSHIRE.—*Worcester*, an episcopal city; Dudley, hardware and coals; Kidderminster, carpet manufacture; Droitwich, salt-works; Malvern, medicinal springs.

WARWICKSHIRE.—*Warwick*; Coventry, an episcopal city; Birmingham, hardware manufactures; Leamington, mineral waters; Stratford-upon-Avon, birthplace of Shakspeare.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.—*Northampton*; Peterborough, an episcopal city.

HUNTINGDONSHIRE.—*Huntingdon*, St. Ives.

CAMBRIDGESHIRE.—*Cambridge*, seat of one of the English universities; Ely, an episcopal city; Newmarket, horse-races.

GLOUCESTERSHIRE.—*Gloucester*, an episcopal city; Bristol, an episcopal city, one of the great commercial towns of England; Cheltenham, mineral waters; Stroud, Tewksbury.

OXFORDSHIRE.—*Oxford*, an episcopal city, seat of one of the English universities; Banbury, Witney, Woodstock.

BUCKINGHAMSHIRE.—*Buckingham*, Aylesbury, Marlow.

BEDFORDSHIRE.—*Bedford*, Luton, Dunstable.

HERTFORDSHIRE.—*Hertford*, Ware, St. Albans.

MIDDLESEX.—*London*, an episcopal city, and the metropolis of the British Empire; including the cities of London and Westminster, and the boroughs of Southwark, Lambeth, and Marylebone, with other contiguous districts. This county contains numerous suburban villages, of superior importance to many country towns.

TEN SOUTHERN.

KENT.—*Maidstone*; Greenwich, royal observatory, and royal naval asylum; Deptford, Chatham, Woolwich, and Sheerness, royal dockyards and arsenals; **CANTERBURY**, the archiepiscopal metropolis of England; Dover, a seaport; Tonbridge Wells, mineral waters; Rochester, an episcopal city; Margate and Ramsgate, sea-bathing.

SURREY.—*Guilford*, Croydon, and several villages suburban to London.

SUSSEX.—*Chichester*, an episcopal city; *Lewes*, another county town; Brighton, Worthing, and Hastings, sea-bathing.

BERKSHIRE.—*Reading*; Newbury; Windsor, seat of the chief royal residence.

HAMPSHIRE.—*Winchester*, an episcopal city; Portsmouth, principal station of the Royal Navy; Southampton, a place of fashionable resort.

WILTSHIRE.—*Salisbury*, an episcopal city; Devizes, Bradford, Trowbridge, and Warminster, woollen manufacture; Wilton, (from which the county takes its name,) carpet manufacture.

DORSETSHIRE.—*Dorchester*, Weymouth, Poole, Bridport, Lyne.

SOMERSETSHIRE.—*Taunton*; Bath, an episcopal city, celebrated for its hot springs; Wells, an episcopal city; Yeovil; Frome.

DEVONSHIRE.—*Exeter*, an episcopal city; Plymouth; Devonport, the second station for the Royal Navy.

CORNWALL.—*Launceston*; Falmouth, the principal post-office packet station for the Mediterranean, West Indies, and America; Penzance, remarkable for mildness and salubrity: the standary towns, where the blocks of tin are legally stamped, are Launceston, Lostwithiel, Truro, Helston, and Penzance.

SIX IN NORTH WALES.

ANGLESEA.—*Beaumaris*, Holyhead, Amlwch.

CAERNARVONSHIRE.—*Caernarvon*; Bangor, an episcopal city; Conway.

DENBIGHSHIRE.—*Denbigh*, Wrexham.

FLINTSHIRE.—*Flint*; St. Asaph, an episcopal see; Holywell, which derives its name from the remarkable fountain called St. Winifred's Well.

MERIONETHSHIRE.—*Dolgelly*.

MONTGOMERYSHIRE.—*Montgomery*, Welshpool.

SIX IN SOUTH WALES.

RADNORSHIRE.—*New Radnor*.

CARDIGANSHIRE.—*Cardigan*; Lampeter, the seat of St. David's College; Aberystwith.

PEMBROKESHIRE.—*Pembroke*, Haverfordwest, Milford Haven; St. David's, an episcopal village.

CAERMARTHENSHIRE.—*Caermarthen*, Llanelly. At the village of Abergwilly, near Caermarthen, is the palace of the Bishop of St. David's.

GLAMORGANSHIRE.—*Cardiff*, a seaport; Merthyr Tydvil, the seat of extensive iron-works; Swansea, of copper-works, and a prosperous seaport. Llandaff, although now an inconsiderable village, is an episcopal see.

BRECKNOCKSHIRE.—*Brecon*, containing a fine arsenal.

162. *Circuits.*—The above counties, with the exception of Middlesex, which is the seat of the supreme courts, are distributed into seven circuits; each of which is visited periodically by two of the supreme judges for the determining of civil and criminal causes at the assizes. The *Home Circuit* includes Essex, Hertfordshire, Kent, Surrey, and Sussex. The *Norfolk Circuit*—Buckinghamshire, Bedfordshire, Huntingdonshire,

Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, and Suffolk. The *Oxford Circuit*—Oxfordshire, Berkshire, Gloucestershire, Worcestershire, Monmouthshire, Herefordshire, Salop, and Staffordshire. The *Midland Circuit*—Lincolnshire, Rutlandshire, Northamptonshire, Leicestershire, Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Warwickshire. The *Western Circuit*—Hants, Wilts, Dorsetshire, Somersetshire, Devonshire, and Cornwall. The *Northern Circuit*—Yorkshire, Durham, Northumberland, Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire. The *Chester and Wales Circuit*—Cheshire, and North and South Wales.

163. *Civil Divisions of Scotland*.—Scotland is divided into 33 shires or sheriffdoms:—

ELEVEN NORTHERN.

ORKNEY AND SHETLAND.—*Kirkwall*, where the ancient cathedral of the bishopric of Orkney still remains entire; Stromness; Lerwick.

CAITHNESS.—Wick, Thurso.

SUTHERLAND.—*Dornock*, now a mere village, formerly the see of the Bishops of Caithness.

ROSS.—*Tain*, Dingwall.

CROMARTY.—*Cromarty*.

INVERNESS.—*Inverness*, the reputed capital of the Highlands.

NAIRN.—*Nairn*.

ELGIN.—*Elgin*, once the see of the Bishop of Moray, contains the ruins of a noble cathedral. The present Bishop is entitled Bishop of Moray, Ross, and Argyle.

BANFF.—*Banff*.

ABERDEEN.—*Aberdeen*, the third city in Scotland. The Bishop of Aberdeen is Primus of the Church in Scotland.

KINCARDINE.—Stonehaven.

NINE MIDDLE.

FORFAR.—*Forfar*; Dundee; Montrose; Arbroath; Brechin, an ancient episcopal city, and still a bishop's see.

PERTH.—*Perth*; Dunkeld, having the ruins of a cathedral; Dumblane, formerly a bishop's see. The united sees of Dunkeld, Dumblane, and Fife, are now an episcopal diocese.

FIFE.—*Cupar*; Dunfermline; St. Andrew's, a very ancient and venerable city, which, for centuries, was the see of a bishop, and afterwards of an archbishop.

KINROSS.—*Kinross*.

CLACKMANNAN.—*Alloa*, Dollar. Clackmannan is a village only.

STIRLING.—*Stirling*; Falkirk, celebrated for its “trysts,” or cattle-fairs.

DUMBARTON.—*Dumbarton*, one of the most ancient towns of Scotland; Kirkintilloch.

ARGYLE.—*Inverary*; Staffa, a small island on the west coast of Mull; Iona, an island wherein a monastery was founded by St. Columba, the apostle of the Highlands, in the seventh century, and subsequently the seat of the Bishop of the Isles.

BUTE,—composed of the islands of Bute, Arran, and Cumbræ. Its chief town is *Rothsay*.

THIRTEEN SOUTHERN.

HADDINGTON, or East Lothian.—*Haddington*, Dunbar.

EDINBURGH, or Mid Lothian.—*Edinburgh*, the chief town of Scotland, but no longer metropolitan; the head-quarters of the General Assembly of the Kirk, but still a bishop's see; is situated in 55° 57' N. lat., and 30° 10' W. long.; 337 miles N. N. W. of London. Population, 164,000. Leith, Dalkeith, Portobello.

LINLITHGOW, or West Lothian.—*Linlithgow*, Bathgate.

BERWICK.—*Greenlaw*; Dunse, the birthplace of John Duns Scotus.

ROXBURGH.—*Jedburgh*, Kelso, Hawick.

SELKIRK.—*Selkirk*.

PEEBLES.—*Peebles*.

LANARK.—*Lanark*; Glasgow, the great seat of Scottish manufactures, originally an episcopal city, still having, entire, the ancient cathedral of St. Mungo, and being also a bishop's see.

RENFREW.—*Renfrew*; Paisley, engaged in the silk and muslin manufacture; Greenock, a large seaport on the Clyde.

AYR.—*Ayr*, Kilmarnock, Irvine.

DUMFRIES.—*Dumfries*, a superior town; Annan.

KIRCUDBRIGHT.—*Kircudbright*.

WIGTON.—*Wigton*; Whithorn, once the see of the Bishop of Galloway; Port-Patrick.

164. *Civil Divisions of Ireland*.—Ireland is divided into four provinces; Ulster, Leinster, Munster, and Connaught,

which are subdivided into 32 counties. Dublin, the capital of Ireland, is situated in 53° 20' N. lat., and 6° 17' W. long.; 292 miles W. N. W. of London. Population, 238,000.

ULSTER.

DONEGAL.—*Lifford*, Donegal, Ballyshannon.

DERRY.—*Derry*, or Londonderry, on the broad and navigable river Foyle; Coleraine.

ANTRIM.—*Belfast*, the third town in Ireland; Lisburn; Ballymena; Carrickfergus.

TYRONE.—*Omagh*, Strabane, Dungannon.

DOWN.—*Downpatrick*, said to have been erected into a bishopric by St. Patrick; Newry; Donaghadee, whose harbour is the station of the mail-packets between Scotland and Ireland.

ARMAGH.—*Armagh*, the archiepiscopal metropolis of Ireland.

MONAGHAM.—*Monaghan*.

FERMANAGH.—*Enniskillen*.

CAVAN.—*Cavan*; Cootehill, one of the largest linen markets in Ulster.

LEINSTER.

LONGFORD.—*Longford*, Edgeworthstown.

WEST MEATH.—*Mullingar*; Athlone, consisting of two towns on opposite banks of the Shannon.

MEATH.—*Trim*, Navan.

LOUTH.—*Drogheda*, having an extensive corn trade; Dundalk, having a large export trade in agricultural produce.

DUBLIN.—*Dublin*, an archiepiscopal city, and the capital of Ireland; Kingstown.

KILDARE.—*Athy*; *Naas*; Maynooth, where is a Papal College supported by the British Government; Kildare, a small episcopal city.

KING'S COUNTY.—*Tullamore*; Birr; Banagher; Philipstown, so called after Philip II. of Spain, husband of Queen Mary.

QUEEN'S COUNTY.—*Maryborough*, so called after Queen Mary; Mountmellick; Portarlington.

WICKLOW.—*Wicklow*, Arklow.

WEXFORD.—*Wexford*, New Ross, Enniscorthy.

CARLOW.—*Carlow*.

KILKENNY.—*Kilkenny*, Callan.

MUNSTER.

TIPPERARY.—*Clonmel*, Carrick, Nenagh, Cashel, Tipperary, Cahir.

WATERFORD.—*Waterford*, Dungarvon, Lismore.

CORK.—*Cork*, the second city of Ireland; Youghall, Bandon, Kinsale, Fermoy, Cove, Bantry, Cloyne.

KERRY.—*Tralee*, Killarney, Dingle, Listowell.

LIMERICK.—*Limerick*, an ancient city, with a venerable cathedral; Rathkeale.

CLARE.—*Ennis*, Kilrush, Killaloe.

GALWAY.—*Galway*, Tuam.

ROSCOMMON.—*Roscommon*, Athlone, Elphin.

MAYO.—*Castlebar*, Ballina, Westport.

SLIGO.—*Sligo*.

LEITRIM.—*Carrick-on-Shannon*, Leitrim, once a place of importance.

165. *Colonies and Foreign Dependencies of Great Britain*.—In *Europe*: Gibraltar, Malta, Heligoland, and the Ionian Isles. In *North America*: Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia and Cape Breton, New Brunswick, Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, and Bermudas. In the *West Indies*: Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Vincent, Grenada, Tobago, St. Lucia, Trinidad, Antigua, St. Christopher's, Montserrat, Nevis, Anguilla, Dominica, Virgin Islands, Bahamas, Guiana, and Honduras. In *Asia*: India and her dependencies, and Ceylon. In *Africa*: Cape of Good Hope, Mauritius, Sierra Leone, &c., Gambia, and St. Helena. In *Australasia*: New South Wales, Western Australia, South Australia, Van Diemen's Land, and New Zealand.

SECTION III.

FRANCE.

166. *Situation and Boundaries*.—France is situated between $42^{\circ} 21'$ and $51^{\circ} 5'$ N. lat., and between 8° E. and 5° W. long. Its greatest length

is 665 miles; its greatest breadth 576 miles; its area more than 204,000 square miles. Population, 33,540,900. It is bounded on the north by the English Channel and Belgium; west, by the Bay of Biscay and the Atlantic Ocean; south, by the Mediterranean and the Pyrenees; east, by the Rhine, Switzerland, Savoy, and the Alps.

167. *General Description of the Country.*—The greater part of France consists of a series of river-basins, that of the Rhone being the most distinctly marked; separated by mountains and hills, and expanding into plains as they approach the sea-coast. The pastures of Normandy and the banks of the Loire gratify the eye; but the general aspect of France is tame and irksome to the English traveller. Picardy, Champagne, and Poitou consist of uninteresting levels; but Auvergne, Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Provence, are bold and rocky. The southern coasts are bordered by *landes*; which are vast downs of sand, with scanty pastures interspersed. The coast along the English Channel forms two great bays, separated by the peninsula of La Manche, whose north-eastern and north-western capes are Barfleur and La Hague, in Normandy. France is watered by twenty-one principal rivers; the chief of which are the Loire, Rhone, Garonne, Seine, Meuse, and Moselle. The Loire has a tortuous course of about 600 miles; it traverses the centre of the kingdom, passing Nevers, Orleans, Blois, Tours, Saumur, and Nantes, receives numerous affluents, and falls into the Atlantic Ocean. The Rhone enters France from Switzerland; passes Lyons, Vienne, Valence, Montelimart, Avignon, Tarascon, and Arles; receives

several affluents, of which the Saône is the chief; and after a course of upwards of 500 miles, of which more than 300 are navigable, falls into the Mediterranean Sea. The Garonne rises in the Spanish Pyrenees; with the Gironde, it has a course of about 350 miles; its considerable tributaries are the Tarn, the Lot, and the Dordogne; Toulouse, Agen, and Bordeaux stand upon its banks; it falls into the Atlantic. The Seine rises near Dijon, passes Châtillon, Troyes, Melun, Paris, Mantes, Elboeuf, Rouen, and Honfleur; receives the Marne and other tributaries, and falls into the English Channel at Havre, after a very tortuous course of 500 miles. The Meuse and the Moselle traverse portions of France, but belong more properly to Belgium. The Rhine runs for about 100 miles along a portion of the east frontier of France. The general geographical position of this country is a commanding one.

168. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—In the production of iron, France ranks next to England; its other metals are not of much commercial importance. The coal-fields are numerous; those of Loire and the Nord being the most extensive. The salt-beds in the department of Jura are valuable. Building-stone is abundant, as near Paris, and at Caen in Normandy. The climate of the north of France resembles that of the south of England; hence the trees, pasturage, and agricultural produce correspond. In the central region orchards give place to maize, which becomes abundant towards the south. But here the chief product is the vine. The provinces of Champagne and Burgundy produce their respective wines; the department of Gironde yields claret; that of Charente, cognac brandy. The mulberry tree, the olive, and the orange are cultivated in the extreme south. Natural forests are numerous throughout France. The horses, beeves, and sheep are valuable, but inferior in breeding to those of England. Vast quantities of poultry are reared. The

fisheries are abundant; particularly those of mackerel, herrings, pilchards, and oysters. Great quantities of sardines are caught on the Mediterranean and Atlantic coasts. *Cantharides* are found in the south, and leeches are largely exported. As a manufacturing country, France ranks next to England. The woollen manufacture is one of the oldest. It is established at Sedan in Champagne, Louviers in Normandy, the mountainous districts of Languedoc, and that of a very fine kind at Rheims. The cotton manufacture is established at Rouen, Paris, Lyons, Lille, and other towns in French Flanders; in Picardy and Alsace. The linen manufacture prevails in the north. Superior fabrics are made at Anjou, Laval, and St. Quentin. Cambric and other delicate products are among the leading manufactures of the north-east. Large quantities of lace are produced at Valenciennes, Bayeux, and elsewhere. The paper of France is excellent. The silk-manufacture is the most eminent, and surpasses that of every other country in Europe: it is extensively prosecuted in different parts of the kingdom; its principal seats are Lyons and Paris. The trade of France is much confined to the supply of the home market. In commerce, the chief imports are raw silk and cotton: the exports are limited. The great commercial towns of France are Paris, Lyons, Rouen, St. Etienne, Beaucaire, Aix, Toulouse, Carcassone, Nismes, Montpellier, Beziers, Lille, Strasbourg, Nancy, Mulhausen, and Perpignan. The principal ports for foreign trade are Marseilles, Havre, Bordeaux, Nantes, Rochelle, Dunkerque, Boulogne, Dieppe, St. Malo, L'Orient, Bayonne, and Cette. Railroads are beginning to make progress in France.

169. *Constitution and Government.*—The government of France is an hereditary limited monarchy. The executive power is vested in the King, who bears the title of the King of the French. The chief executive ministers, who are appointed by the King, are the Ministers of War, of the Marine, of Justice and of Public Worship, of the Interior, of Finance, of Foreign Affairs, and of Public Instruction. The legislative power is vested collectively in the King, the Chamber of Peers, and the Chamber of Deputies. The Peers, whose number is unlimited, are nominated by the King for life. The Chamber of Deputies is composed of 449 members, chosen by the electoral colleges for five years. For municipal purposes, France is divided into 86 departments, each under the charge of a

prefect: these are subdivided into *arrondissements*, each under a subprefect; and the *arrondissements* into cantons and communes, each commune being under a *maire*. There is a corresponding gradation in the judicial establishments. The Royal Courts are the chief pivots of the judiciary system of France: these are 27 in number; established in the cities of Agen, Aix, Amiens, Angers, Bastia, Besançon, Bordeaux, Bourges, Caen, Colmar, Dijon, Douai, Grenoble, Limoges, Lyon, Metz, Montpellier, Nancy, Nîmes, Orleans, Paris, Pau, Poitiers, Rennes, Riom, Rouen, and Toulouse. The supreme court of all is the *Cour de Cassation*, which has its seat in Paris. For military purposes, France is distributed into 21 military divisions, each under the command of a lieutenant-general. The maritime regions are divided into 5 *arrondissements*, whose chief towns are Cherbourg, Brest, L'Orient, Rochefort, and Toulon. The university of France includes all the general educational institutions in the kingdom, from the lowest schools up to the royal colleges: it is composed of 26 academies. Besides these, there are numerous schools for special purposes; the chief of which is the Polytechnic School of Paris.

170. *Provinces and Departments*.—France was formerly divided into 35 provinces; which, in 1790, were subdivided into 86 departments. Paris is the capital; situated in 48° 50' N. lat., and 2° 20' E. long.; 220 miles south-east of London, and 97 from the sea: population, 909,126.

PROVINCES—EIGHT NORTHERN.

Provinces.	Departments.	Capitals of Provinces and other Towns.
Flandres.	Nord.	Lille; Dunkirk, Douai, Cambray.
Artois.	Pas de Calais.	Arras; Boulogne, St. Omer.
Picardy.	Somme.	Amiens; Abbeville, Crecy.
Normandy.	Calvados, Eure, Manche, Orne, Seine Inférieure, N. part of Eure et Loire.	Rouen; Havre, Dieppe, Evreux, Caen, St. Lô, Cherbourg, Alençon.

Provinces.	Departments.	Capitals of Provinces and other Towns.
Ile de France.	S. part of Aisne, Oise, Seine et Oise, Seine, Seine et Marne.	Paris ; Laon, St. Quentin, Beauvais, Versailles, St. Denis, Melun.
Champagne.	Aube, Ardennes, Marne, Haut Marne.	Troyes ; Mezières, Sedan, Châlons, Rheims.
Lorraine.	Meurthe, Meuse, Moselle, Vosges.	Nancy ; Bar-le-Duc, Metz.
Alsace.	Haut Rhin, Bas Rhin.	Strasbourg ; Colmar, Mülhausen.

SEVEN WESTERN.

Bretagne.	Ille et Vilaine, Finistère, Cotes du Nord, Morbihan, Loire Inférieure.	Rennes ; Quimper, Brest, St. Brieux, Vannes, Nantes.
Maine.	Sarthe, Mayenne.	Le Mans ; La Flèche, Laval.
Anjou.	Maine et Loire.	Angers ; Saumur.
Poitou.	Vienne, Vendée, Deux Sèvres.	Poitiers ; Bourbon-Vendee, Fontenay-le-Comte, Niort.
Aunis.	Maritime portion of Charente Inférieure.	Rochelle ; Rochefort.
Angoumois.	Charente.	Angoulême.
Saintonge.	Inland portion of Charente Inférieure.	Saintes.

NINE MIDLAND.

Touraine.	Indres et Loire.	Tours.
Orleanais.	Eure et Loire, Loiret, Loir et Cher.	Orleans ; Chartres, Blois.
Berri.	Cher, Indre.	Bourges ; Châteauroux.
Nivernais.	Nièvre.	Nevers.
Bourbonnais.	Allier.	Moulins.

Provinces.	Departments.	Capitals of Provinces and other Towns.
La Marche.	Creuse.	Gueret.
Limousin.	Haute Vienne, Corrèze.	Limoges ; Tulle.
Auvergne.	Puy-de-Dôme, Cantal.	Clermont ; Aurillac.
Lyonnais.	Rhône, Loire.	Lyons ; Montbrison.

FOUR BORDERING ON SWITZERLAND AND ITALY.

Franche Comté	Doubs, Haute Saône, Jura.	Besançon ; Vesoul, Lons-le-Saulnier.
Burgundy.	Côte d'Or, Yonne, Saône et Loire, Ain.	Dijon ; Auxerre, Ma- con, Bourg.
Dauphiné.	Isère, Drôme, Hautes Alpes.	Grenoble ; Vienne, Va- lence, Gap.
Provence.	Bouches du Rhone, Basses Alpes, Var.	Aix ; Marseilles, Digne, Draguignan, Toulon.

SEVEN SOUTHERN.

Guienne and Gascony.	Gers, Gironde, Dor- dogne, Lot, Avey- ron, Tarn et Ga- ronne, Lot et Ga- ronne, Landes, Hautes Pyrénées.	Auch ; Bordeaux ; Per- igueux, Chors ; Rho- dez, Montauban, Agen, Mont-de-Mar- san, Tarbes.
Languedoc.	Haute Garonne, Ar- dèche, Haute Loire, Lozère, Gard, He- rault, Tarne, Aude.	Toulouse ; Privas, Le Puy, Mende, Nîmes, Montpellier, Alby, Carcassone, Narbonne.
Comtat d'A- vignon.	Vaucluse.	Avignon.
Bearn.	Basses Pyrénées.	Pau ; Bayonne.
Comté de Foix.	Arriège.	Foix.
Roussillon.	Pyrénées Orientales.	Perpignan.
	Corsica.	Ajaccio.

171. *Colonies and Foreign Possessions.*—The principal colonies and foreign possessions of France are the islands of Mar-

inique, Guadeloupe, and others, in the *West Indies*; Cayenne, and a portion of Guiana, in *South America*; Algeria, Senegal, and other territories on the west coast, in *Africa*; the island of Bourbon, in the *Indian Ocean*; the island of St. Mary, near *Madagascar*; Pondicherry, settlements on the coast of Coromandel, in Bengal, Malabar, and elsewhere,—all in *India*. The little republic of *Andorre*, on the Spanish side of the Pyrenees, is a sovereign state, under the protection of France and of the Bishop of Urgel.

SECTION IV.

SWITZERLAND.

172. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Switzerland is situated between 46° and 48° N. lat., and between 6° and $10^{\circ} 35'$ E. long. Its greatest length is about 208 English miles; its greatest breadth 156 miles; its area more than 11,000 geographical miles. Population, 2,125,480. It lies on the northern slope of the Alps; and is bounded west by France, north by Germany, east by Austria, south by Italy.

173. *General Description of the Country.*—Switzerland is very mountainous and romantic. Its inhabitants occupy the fertile valleys between the mountain ridges. The Alpine regions have been distributed into these seven:—the region of the vine, which commences in the valleys; of the oak; of the beech; of the fir; of grasses; of hardy plants, which ascends 8000 feet above the level of the sea; and, lastly, the region of glaciers and perpetual snow. These regions are greatly modified by the depth of

the valleys. The glaciers—immense, restless masses of ice and frozen snow, deposited on slopes, and ever tending to descend,—are the most remarkable features in Swiss scenery: they form a broken sea of ice of more than 1000 square miles in extent. Huge falls of snow, termed avalanches, are frequent and tremendous: landslips are yet more destructive. Among the loftiest summits of the Swiss Alps are Mount Rosa, the Storm Peak, the Jungfrau, the Peak of Terror, the Great St. Bernard, Mount Simplon, and St. Gothard. The chain of Jura, unlike the Alps, is clothed with luxuriant pine forests. Switzerland is eminently the country of lakes: the principal are the Lakes of Constance, Zurich, Lucerne, Neufchatel, and Geneva. The Rhine and the Rhone are the chief rivers; both have several affluents.

174. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The mineral wealth of the mountains is but little known; there are a few iron mines in the Jura. Agriculture flourishes; the great natural obstacles which present themselves only serving to provoke the skill, industry, and perseverance of the inhabitants. The meadows are excellent. The chief produce is butter and cheese. The cantons of Zurich, Basle, Geneva, Neufchatel, Glarus, and Outer Appenzel are distinguished for their manufactures. The most industrious towns are Geneva, Basle, Zurich, St. Gall, Winterthur, Bern, Gersau, Herisau, Glarus, Chaux-de-fond, and Locle. The principal manufactures are those of watches and other fine and elegant articles, paper, arms, and gunpowder. Domestic manufactures, for local consumption, are very general. Bern, Zurich, and Lucerne are the three great marts of internal commerce. Basle, Geneva, and others, are the entrepôts of the foreign trade, which is flourishing. The transit trade is important.

175. *Constitution and Government.*—The constitution of Switzerland is a confederation of cantons; some of which are democratic, others aristocratic, and others representative repub-

lics. The present federal system was established in 1815. Switzerland has no fixed capital: Zurich, Bern, and Lucerne receive this honour, by rotation, for a period of two years each; and their burgomaster is, for the time being, the Land-ammann of Switzerland. A diet, consisting of deputies from all the cantons, directs the external affairs of the confederacy and the general expenditure. The debates of the diet are held in German; but French, Italian, and a dialect of Latin, called Romanesch, are also spoken in the several cantons. There are universities at Basle, Zurich, and Geneva.

176. *Cantons.*—Switzerland is divided into 22 cantons:—

Seven Northern: Basle, Aargau, Zurich, Scaffhausen, Thurgau, St. Gall, and Outer and Inner Appenzell.

Three Western: Geneva, Vaud, and Neuchatel (now a principality of Prussia).

Nine Central: Fribourg, Bern, Solothurn, Lucerne, Upper and Lower Unterwald, Uri, Zug, Schweitz, and Glarus.

Three Southern: Valais, Grisons, and Tessin.

SECTION V.

BELGIUM.

177. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Belgium is situated between $49^{\circ} 27'$ and $51^{\circ} 31'$ N. lat., and between $2^{\circ} 37'$ and 6° E. long. Its greatest length is about 195 English miles; its breadth about 127 English miles; its area upwards of 11,300 square miles. Population, 4,242,600. It is composed of the southern provinces of the late kingdom of the Netherlands. It lies between Holland and France; having Holland on the north, France on the south and west, the German Ocean also on the west, and the Rhenish provinces of Prussia on the east. No physical boundary separates it from France.

178. *General Description of the Country.*—The southern borders are somewhat rugged; but to the north the country sinks into a flat plain, but little raised above the level of the sea, from whose incursions on the north it is protected by dykes and sand-hills. It is traversed in every direction by numerous rivers, and diversified by woods, arable fields, and meadows in the highest state of cultivation. All its rivers flow to the North Sea: the principal is the Scheldt, which flows from France through Belgium into Holland; the Meuse and the Lys flow into the Scheldt, and the Sambre into the Meuse.

179. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The climate is moist, and generally temperate. The rich pastures render the horses and cattle large and well-conditioned. The agricultural products are excellent; but fruit-trees are rare, and wheat succeeds with difficulty. The commerce and manufactures were once the greatest in the west of Europe: they have greatly fallen off, but are beginning to revive. They consist chiefly of fine linen, laces, carpets, and iron. Belgium exports its agricultural produce and manufactures. The principal commercial towns are Brussels, Ghent, Liege, Namur, Tournay, Ypres, Mons, Louvain, Verviers, and Malines (Mechlin). The principal seaport towns are Antwerp, Ostend, Bruges, and Nieuport. The roads, canals, and railways of Belgium are numerous and excellent.

180. *Constitution and Government.*—The kingdom of Belgium was established in 1831. It is a limited hereditary monarchy. The legislature is composed of a Senate and a Chamber of Representatives: the executive government is vested in the King, assisted by six responsible ministers: the judicial system is modelled upon that of France. There are three principal universities in Belgium; established at Louvain, Ghent, and Liege.

181. *Provinces and Chief Towns.*—Brussels, the capital, is situated in 50° 50' N. lat., and 4° 22' E. long., about 50 miles E. by S. from the sea. Population, 103,200.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
South Brabant.	Brussels.	Liege.	Liege.
Antwerp.	Antwerp.	Namur.	Namur.
East Flanders.	Ghent.	Limbourg.	Hasselt.
West Flanders.	Bruges.	Luxembourg.	Arlon.
Hainault.	Mons.		

SECTION VI.

HOLLAND.

182. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Holland is situated between $51^{\circ} 12'$ and $53^{\circ} 31'$ N. lat., and between $3^{\circ} 20'$ and $7^{\circ} 12'$ E. long., along the south-eastern coast of the North Sea. Its greatest length is about 190 English miles; its greatest breadth about 123 English miles; its area 11,897 square miles. Population, 2,460,924. It is bounded on the north and west by the German Ocean, south by Belgium, east by Germany.

183. *General Description of the Country.*—The general aspect of Holland is that of a reclaimed swamp. A great part of it is considerably below the level of the sea, from which it is protected by natural sand-hills and artificial dykes. The surface is of course extremely flat; but the verdant meadows, cultivated by an industrious people, impart a degree of beauty to the summer landscape. Its chief rivers are the Yssel, which flows into the Zuyder-Zee; and the Rhine, Waal, and Meuse, which flow into the German Ocean. It has numerous small lakes. The

chief gulphs are the Zuyder-Zee and the Dollart. There are several small islands, as Texel, at the entrance of the Zuyder-Zee; and the province of Zealand chiefly consists of islands, as Schowen, Tholen, Walcheren, and others.

184. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The climate of Holland is cold, moist, and foggy; but the frosts and east winds of winter are salubrious. The chief agricultural products are oats, rye, and provisions. The horned cattle and horses are excellent; the sheep inferior. The manufactures of Holland are upon a narrow scale: the principal are those of snuff, gin, and beer. Ship-building is also making progress. Numerous vessels are employed in the herring fishery. During the sixteenth century, Holland was the most commercial country in the world, and it still possesses considerable trade. Its commission trade is valuable; and its bankers conduct important exchanges. The principal trading towns are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Middelburg, Flushing, Briel, Dort, Enkhuiszen, Zieriksee, Gröningen, and Utrecht. The canals of Holland are innumerable and unrivalled.

185. *Constitution and Government.*—The King, a constitutional monarch, shares the legislative power with the States-General. The government of the colonies is vested exclusively in him. There are state universities at Leyden, Utrecht, and Gröningen; and elementary secular instruction is very generally diffused.

186. *Provinces and Chief Towns.*—The kingdom of Holland is divided into ten provinces, which are subdivided into districts, and these into cantons. By a treaty in 1839, the provinces of Limbourg and Luxembourg have been divided between Holland and Belgium. The Hague, the capital, is situated in 52° 4' N. lat., and 4° 46' E. long. Population, 58,000.

NORTH HOLLAND.—Amsterdam, Haarlem, and the island of Texel.

SOUTH HOLLAND.—The Hague, Leyden, Rotterdam, Dort, and Helvoetsluis.

ZEALAND.—Middleburg, Vlissingen (Flushing), Sluys, and Axel.

NORTH BRABANT.—Hertogensbosch (Bois-le-Duc), Breda, Bergen-op-Zoom.

UTRECHT.—Utrecht.

GUELDERLAND.—Arnheim, Nimeguen, Amersfort.

OVERYSSEL.—Zwoll, Deventer.

DREUTHE.—Assen.

GRÖNINGEN.—Gröningen.

FRIESLAND.—Liewerden.

LIMBOURG.—Maestricht.

LUXEMBOURG.—Luxembourg.

187. *Colonies and Foreign Possessions.*—In *Asia*—Java, part of Sumatra, Amboyna, Banda, Ternate, Macassar, and Timor. In *Africa*—forts on the coast of Guinea. In *America*—Surinam, island of Curaçoa, St. Eustatia, Saba, and part of St. Martins; the three last in the West Indies.

SECTION VII.

GERMANY.

188. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Germany extends from sea to sea, between 45° and 55° N. lat., and between 6° and 19° E. long. Its greatest length is 678 English miles; its greatest breadth 600. Superficial area 246,795 square miles. Population, 38,665,000. It comprises all the countries of central Europe, and is bounded on the north by the German Ocean, Denmark, and the Baltic; west, by France, Belgium, and Holland; south, by Switzerland and the Tyrol; east, by Hungary, Galicia, and Prussian Poland.

189. *General Description of the Country.*—The

surface of Germany is much diversified. The mountain tracts lie chiefly in the south and south-east. The mountains are a northern branch of the Alps, of comparatively moderate elevation, but of considerable extent, ramifying in four principal directions from the Fichtel-gebirge, in the north of Bavaria, and forming the watershed that divides the rivers of the Black Sea from those of the Baltic and German Ocean. The Erz-gebirge forms the boundary between Saxony and Bohemia. A second range separates Bohemia from Bavaria. The Suabian Alps form the watershed between the affluents of the Rhine and those of the Danube. The Thuringian range divides into two chains: one running north into Hanover, and forming the Hartz chain, which divides the waters of the Weser from those of the Elbe; the other running west, and dividing the waters of the Rhine from those of the Weser and its affluents. Germany contains 60 navigable rivers: the chief of which are the Danube, with the Lech, Isar, Inn, and other affluents; the Rhine, with the Neckar, Meyn, Nahe, Lahn, and other affluents; the Ems, Weser and Aller, Elbe, Trave, Warnow, Rechnitz, and Oder. The Ems, Weser, Elbe, and Warnow fall into the North Sea; the Trave, Rechnitz, and Oder, into the Baltic. Central Germany is chiefly composed of high valleys and table-lands. Northern Germany sinks into a wide sandy plain, very little raised above the level of the ocean. Germany may be divided, generally, into three zones, as regards climate. The northern is humid and variable: the central is somewhat cold, but regular and salubrious: the Alpine is very various, according to elevation and other local peculiarities.

190. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—Germany abounds in minerals, mines, and mineral springs. Forest trees are numerous and valuable, and esculent vegetables are successfully cultivated; so also are hops. The best wines, known in England by the name of hock, are produced on the banks of the Rhine. The forests abound with wild animals, and wild birds are very numerous; but the domesticated animals are not remarkable. The three seas which wash the coast abound with fish; but the kinds most used are those caught in the rivers and lakes. Agriculture is depressed: manufactures are numerous, and (on a moderate scale) thriving. Linens, from the coarse fabrics of Westphalia to the finest shirtings and table linens of Silesia and Saxony, are the most valuable article. Woollens of all kinds are made; the cotton and silk manufactures are less important. The porcelain manufactures of Berlin and Dresden are admirable. Paper of inferior quality is largely made. Beer and ardent spirits are extensively produced. The press of Germany is unrivalled, as regards the number of its books. Its commerce is active and extensive. The great commercial league, supported and propagated by Prussia, is expected by many persons to consolidate, more or less, the numerous states into which Germany is broken up, and to promote the internal commercial interests of the country generally. Among the inland trading towns we may name Frankfort, Leipzig, Augsburg, Nurnberg, Brunswick, Hanover, Cassel, Munich, Karlsruhe, Darmstadt, and Weimar. The principal maritime towns are Hamburg, Lubeck, Bremen, and Embden. The fair of Leipzig is unparalleled in the sale of books. The trade of Hamburgh is immense. Various railways have been projected, and some opened. The Saxons especially are endeavouring to become a commercial people.

191. *Government and Institutions.*—The states which compose the Germanic Confederation present every variety of form of government. The four free cities are republics; most of the grand-duchies and duchies are constitutional monarchies. The Confederation is represented by the Federative Diet, which is presided over by the plenipotentiary of Austria, and holds its sittings at Frankfort on the Meyn. Germany abounds in schools of all descriptions. There are nineteen universities: five Catholic, at Prague, Vienna, Wurtzburg, Munich, and Frey-

berg; eleven Protestant, at Heidelberg, Leipzig, Rostock, Marburg, Jena, Giessen, Kiel, Halle, Gottingen, Erlangen, and Berlin; three mixed, at Tubingen, Breslaw, and Bonn.

192. *Confederated States*.—The following table exhibits the names of the confederated states, and of their respective capitals:—

Confederated States.	Capitals.
1. Austrian German States.	Vienna.
2. Prussian German States.	Berlin.
3. Kingdom of Bavaria.	Munich.
4. ——— Hanover.	Hanover.
5. ——— Wurtemberg.	Stuttgard.
6. ——— Saxony.	Dreaden.
7. Electorate of Hesse.	Cassel.
8. Grand-duchy of Baden.	Karlsruhe.
9. ——— Hesse.	Darmstadt.
10. ——— Holstein.	Gluckstadt.
11. ——— Luxemburg.	Luxemburg.
12. ——— Mecklenburg Schwerin.	Schwerin.
13. ——— Mecklenburg Strelitz.	New Strelitz.
14. ——— Saxe-Weimar.	Weimar.
15. ——— Oldenburg.	Oldenburg.
16. Lordship of Kniphausen.	Kniphausen.
17. Duchy of Brunswick.	Brunswick.
18. ——— Nassau.	Wiesbaden.
19. ——— Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.	Gotha.
20. ——— Saxe-Meiningen.	Meiningen.
21. ——— Saxe-Altenburg.	Altenburg.
22. ——— Anhalt-Dessau.	Dessau.
23. ——— Anhalt-Bernburg.	Bernburg.
24. ——— Anhalt-Koethen.	Koethen.
25. Principality of Schwartzburg Sondershausen.	Sondershausen.
26. ——— Schwartzburg Rudolstadt.	Rudolstadt.
27. ——— Lichtenstein.	Lichtenstein.
28. ——— Hohenzollern Hechingen.	Hechingen.
29. ——— Hohenzollern Sigmaringen.	Sigmaringen.
30. ——— Waldeck.	Corbach.
31. ——— Reuss (elder branch).	Greitz.
32. ——— Reuss (younger branch).	Schleitz.
33. ——— Schaumburg Lippé.	Buckeburg.
34. ——— Lippé-Detmold.	Detmold.
35. Landgraviate of Hesse Homburg.	Homburg.
36. Free City of Hamburg.	Hamburg.
37. ——— Lubeck.	Lubeck.
38. ——— Frankfort.	Frankfort.
39. ——— Bremen.	Bremen.

193. *Chief Towns.*—The chief towns of the kingdom of Bavaria are Munich, one of the finest cities of Germany; Nurnberg, an interesting specimen of the middle ages; Augsburg, where Melancthon drew up a Protestant Confession of Faith in 1530; Ratisbon; Wurtzburg; Bamberg; Anspach; Furth; Passau; and Spires, one of the most ancient cities of Germany, where a celebrated imperial diet was held in 1529, when a minority entered a *protest* against certain decrees; whence those who assert the right of private judgment against the authority of the Catholic Church have gradually acquired the name of *Protestants*. The chief towns of the kingdom of Hanover are Hanover, Hildesheim, Gottingen, Luneburg, Osnabruck, and Embden. The chief towns of the kingdom of Wurtemberg are Stuttgard, Reutlingen, Tubingen, and Ulm. The chief towns of the kingdom of Saxony are Dresden, situate on the Elbe; Leipzig, Freyberg, Plauen, and Bautzen. The chief towns of the grand-duchy of Baden are Karlsruhe, Baden-Baden, Freyburg, and Mannheim.

SECTION VIII.

AUSTRIAN EMPIRE.

194. *Situation and Boundaries.*—This great empire is situated almost in the centre of Europe, between 42° and 51° N. lat., and 9° and 27° E. long. Its greatest length is about 860 English miles; its greatest breadth about 490. Area, nearly 260,000 square miles. Population, 36,950,400. It is bounded on the north by Prussia, Saxony, and Bavaria; west, by the Sardinian states, Switzerland, and Bavaria; south, by Turkey, the Adriatic Sea, and the independent states of Italy; east, by

Russia and Moldavia. It is formed by the union of different countries, inhabited by people differing in race, language, religion, form of internal government, institutions, manners, and customs, who have no natural connexion with each other, and are held together by the single tie of a common sovereign and a central government. The chief classes of people are the Slavonians, Germans, Magyars, and Italians.

195. *Topographical Divisions.*—The German geographers divide all the countries which compose this empire, into the German, Polish, Hungarian, and Italian countries. We shall describe the last under the head of Italy. In the following paragraphs we shall describe the other three; incorporating our usual heads in single paragraphs.

The German Countries of the Austrian Empire.

196. The *Archduchy of Austria* is divided by the river Ens into Upper and Lower Austria. Fruit-trees are abundant in Upper Austria, and the sides of the mountains are covered with forests. The valleys of the Danube and the Ens are rich in agricultural produce: the mountainous districts yield iron, coal, rock-salt, and other minerals. Lower Austria is also the seat of extensive manufactures. It contains Vienna, the capital, and is the nucleus of the empire. *Tyrol*, situate to the east of Switzerland and south of Bavaria, is traversed in every direction by lofty mountains: its long valleys are warm and fertile, yielding corn and vines; but its agriculture is rude, its mines are little wrought, and its coarse manufactures are literally performed by the hand.

Upper Styria is very mountainous; covered with forests, and affording pasturage. *Lower Styria*, receding from the Alps, is more level, and produces wheat, barley, oats, rye, and, in the warmer portions, maize. Styria contains extensive mines of iron, coal, and salt. *Carinthia* also abounds in minerals; the sides of the mountains are covered with forests, and the pastures are extensive. Like Tyrol, which it adjoins, it is a succession of high mountains, separated by narrow valleys. *Carniola* adjoins Carinthia. Mountainous in the north, where its chief minerals are iron, lead, and quicksilver,—it has fertile plains in the south, whose warmer sun favours the cultivation of the vine and maize. The *Illyrian Coast* consists chiefly of the mountainous peninsula of Istria. Its products are similar to the foregoing: around Trieste the fig, mulberry, and olive thrive; and in the valleys the people devote themselves to the rearing of silkworms.

197. The kingdom of Bohemia comprises Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia. The climate of *Bohemia* is comparatively severe; the soil is good, but agriculture is backward. The pastures and forests are extensive: but the natural wealth of Bohemia consists chiefly in its minerals, which are abundant and valuable,—silver, cobalt, tin, lead, iron, precious stones, kaolin, and many others. The manufactures, which are chiefly those of woollens, linen, and leather, are prosperous and increasing. *Moravia* and *Silesia*, lying to the south-east of Bohemia, are mountainous, but include fertile valleys, which are densely peopled. The country inclining towards the south is drained into the Danube by the Morava.

The manufactures of Moravia are second only to those of the Viennese district.

The Polish Countries of the Austrian Empire.

198. These consist of the single government of the kingdom of Galicia, which formed part of the extinct kingdom of Poland. It chiefly consists of a succession of plains, bordered on the south by the Carpathian mountains. The climate is temperate; but agriculture is backward, and, generally, the industry of the country is depressed.

The Hungarian Countries of the Austrian Empire.

199. The *Kingdom of Hungary* is bounded on the north by Moravia, Silesia, and Galicia; south, by the military frontier, which divides it from Turkey; east, by Transylvania; and west, by Illyria, Styria, Lower Austria, and Moravia. Its frontier is formed by the Carpathian mountains and branches of the Alps. The chief Hungarian affluents of the Danube are the Inn, Drave, Save, and Theiss. The two principal lakes are the Balaton Tava and the Ferto Tava. An extensive portion of the interior consists of vast plains, called *puszta*, once the bed of some inland sea. These plains are divided into two great portions, by a ridge of hills running south-west and north-east. Nearly half the kingdom is occupied by marshes, mountains, sandy plains, and other uncultivated tracts. The natural pastures are good; they are grazed by vast herds of flocks of moderate quality. The horses, though small, are swift and active. The banks of the rivers are frequented by

immense flocks of ducks and wild fowl. The northern part of Hungary is rich in minerals of various kinds: gold, silver, copper, lead, zinc, and other metals; and various precious stones, as garnets and the opal. Throughout Hungary agriculture is in a rude state generally, and manufactures are yet in their infancy.

200. *Slavonia* is a long narrow peninsula between the Save and the Drave. *Croatia* consists of ranges of mountains, with narrow intervening valleys. *Transylvania*, south-east of Hungary, consists of alternate tracts of mountains and valleys, which are exposed to many changes of temperature. Its products are not dissimilar from those specified above. The *Military Frontier* is a long and narrow tract of country, extending from the Bukowine in the east to the shores of the Adriatic on the west. The climate and state of agriculture resemble those of the adjacent provinces. The kingdom of Dalmatia and Albania consists of a long narrow tract of mountainous country, and a number of large islands along the north-eastern coast of the Adriatic.

201. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—Under this head we have only a few general observations to add to the foregoing. The extent of mineral produce in the Austrian empire is very great. Some of the mountains in Styria and Carinthia are almost solid masses of carbonate of iron; but the comparative want of fuel checks the process of smelting. Vast mines of rock-salt extend with little interruption from Moldavia to Swabia. The forests of Austria are very extensive. The vine is much cultivated in the central parts of the empire; but the export of wine is small, being chiefly confined to Tokay, a wine raised on one of the Carpathian chains. The manufacturing establishments of Austria are numerous and progressive, but small; and little is exported: but the export

of hides is considerable; and cheap paper and glass are extensively manufactured. Austria, being an inland country with only very limited access to the sea, labours under great commercial disadvantages: its chief port is Trieste, on the Gulph of Venice.

202. *Government and Institutions.*—The Emperor is theoretically absolute, except in Hungary and Transylvania; but most parts of the empire enjoy their local laws and customs. Hungary is a feudal kingdom, whose crown is at present vested in the Emperor of Austria: the states of Hungary enjoy a considerable amount of rude freedom. The three classes of nobles, citizens, and peasants are strictly defined in all the Austrian provinces. As every province forms a separate land, each has its peculiar language or dialect, and its local usages. A jealous system of education, over which the clergy have not their due control, is administered by the secular power. There are numerous schools, gymnasia, and universities; but education is not compulsory. The whole empire is divided into twelve military provinces; whose respective head-quarters are Vienna, Gratz, Prague, Brunn, Lemberg, Buda, Verona, Peterwardein, Agram, Temeswar, Hermanstadt, and Zara.

203. *Governments and Chief Towns.*—The empire is divided into 15 governments. The capital is Vienna: lat. 48° N.; long. 16° E.: population, about 360,000.

LOWER AUSTRIA.—Vienna, Neusadt.

UPPER AUSTRIA.—Lintz, Steyer, Salzburg.

TYROL.—Innsbruck; Trent, where a celebrated council (not œcumenical) sat between 1542 and 1563; Brixen.

STYRIA.—Gratz.

CARINTHIA AND CARNIOLA.—Laybach, Clagenfurth.

TRIESTE.—Trieste, one of the most important ports on the Mediterranean.

KINGDOM OF BOHEMIA.—Prague; Carsbad and Toplitz, celebrated for their baths.

MORAVIA AND SILESIA.—Brunn, Austerlitz, Olmütz, Iglau, Troppau.

KINGDOM OF GALICIA.—Lemberg; Brody, chiefly inhabited by Jews; Drochobicz.

KINGDOM OF HUNGARY.—Buda, Pesth, Presburg, Fiume.

TRANSYLVANIA.—Klausenburg, Hermanstadt, Kronstadt.

MILITARY FRONTIER.—Peterwardein, Semlin.

KINGDOM OF DALMATIA.—Zara, Spalatro.

KINGDOM OF VENICE.—Venice.

KINGDOM OF LOMBARDY.—Milan.

SECTION IX.

PRUSSIA.

204. *Situation and Boundaries.*—This kingdom consists of several detached portions, separated at wide intervals by other states. It lies between 49° and 56° N. lat., and 60° and 23° E. long.; and its whole area is about 107,894 square miles English. Population, 14,098,125. It is bounded on the north by the Baltic, Mecklenburg, Denmark, and Hanover; south, by Austria, Saxony, Bavaria, and Hessia; east, by Russia; west, by France, Belgium, and Holland.

205. *General Description of the Country.*—The western detached portion lies along both sides of the Lower Rhine; the eastern is a part of the vast sandy plain which extends from the North Sea to the Oural Mountains. Pomerania has been chiefly redeemed from the sea. The Baltic is the only sea that washes the Prussian coasts. The chief gulphs are the Gulphs of Danzig and Frische-haf, at the mouth of the Vistula; the Curische-haf, at the mouth of the Niemen; and the Stettiner-haf, at the mouth of the Oder. The principal rivers are the Vistula and Oder, flowing into the Baltic; the Elbe,

Ems, and Rhine, into the German Ocean; the Pregel, into the Frische-haf; and the Niemen or Memel, into the Curische-haf. Large lakes and morasses are exceedingly numerous, especially in East Prussia and Brandenburg. The climate is generally temperate, especially in the central and western provinces; but on the borders of the Baltic the winters are severely cold, and in the sandy plains the heats of summer are very oppressive.

206. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—Three-fourths of the inhabitants are engaged in the cultivation of the soil: the chief products are corn and flax. The breeding and fattening of cattle is also a productive branch of rural economy. Fine wool is largely exported from Brandenburg, Saxony, and Silesia. The province of Westphalia enjoys a high reputation for its swine. Prussia possesses numerous minerals; but the mines are not worked to the extent of their capabilities. Amber is found in large quantities in Prussia Proper. The principal manufactures are linens, cloths, woollens, silks, and iron wares. The great manufacturing district is along the valley of the Wupper, about the towns of Elberfeld and Solingen. Commerce is increasing. The principal ports are Danzig, Königsberg, Elbing, Memel, Stralsund, Colberg, Rugenwald, Stolpe, Barth, Swinemund, and Wolgast. The principal trading towns in the interior are Berlin, Elberfeld, Breslau, Cologne, Frankfort, Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), Coblenz, Posen, and several others.

207. *Government and Institutions.*—The government is an unlimited monarchy: the administration is vested in a Council of State, of which a Chancellor is president. The military force is great: the ranks of the army are supplied by conscription and ballot. Prussia has no maritime power. Elementary instruction is widely diffused, by means of a compulsory system administered by the Minister of Public Instruction and subordinate officers. There are seven universities; viz. at Berlin, Breslau, Halle, Bonn, Königsberg, Munster, and Greifswald.

208. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns.*—Prussia is di-

vided into 8 provinces, which are subdivided into 25 regencies, and these again into 328 circles. The capital is Berlin: lat. $52^{\circ} 32' N.$; long. $13^{\circ} 23' E.$: population, 236,830.

BRANDENBURG.—Berlin, Potsdam, Brandenburg, Prenzlau, Frankfurt.

POMERANIA.—Stettin, Stralsund.

SAXONY.—Magdeburg, Halberstadt, Burg, Quedlinburg, Halle, Naumburg, Erfurt, Muhlhausen, Nordhausen.

SILESIA.—Breslau, Brieg, Neisse, Görlitz, Gross-Glogau, Liegnitz.

POSEN.—Posen.

PRUSSIA PROPER.—Königsberg, Tilsit, Danzig, Elbing, Marienwerder.

WESTPHALIA.—Munster.

CLEVES-BERG, or the RHENISH PROVINCES.—Köln (Cologne), Bonn, Dusseldorf, Barmen, Elberfeld, Krefeld, Coblenz, Treves, Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle).

SECTION X.

DENMARK.

209. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Denmark consists of the peninsula of Jutland, with the islands of Zealand, Funen, &c.; and lies between $53^{\circ} 20'$ and $57^{\circ} 44' N.$ lat., and 8° and $15^{\circ} 28' E.$ long. Its greatest length is 300 miles; its greatest breadth 180; its area about 22,000 square miles. Population, 2,025,000. It is bounded on the north by the Skager-Rack and Cattegat; south, by the Elbe; east, by the Baltic and the Sound; west, by the German Ocean.

210. *General Description of the Country.*—Denmark is an almost uniformly level country. Much of it is insular. The continental portion is a long

narrow peninsula, projected from Germany, and terminating in the Skaw. The straits which divide the islands present a difficult and dangerous navigation. The Sound lies between Zealand and Sweden; the Great Belt, between Zealand and Funen; the Little Belt, between Funen and Jutland. Cape Skaw projects from the northern extremity of Jutland. The principal islands of Denmark are Zealand, Funen, Laaland, Falster, Moen, Langeland, Femern, Bornholm, Anholt, and many others, in the Baltic; Fano, Romo, Heligoland, and others, in the North Sea; and the Färoe islands, in the Atlantic, twenty-two in number, of which seventeen are inhabited. The principal river is the Eyder, which falls into the North Sea below Tonningen. The climate of Denmark, notwithstanding its northern latitude, is milder than might be expected; but the sky is foggy, spring and summer are variable, winter is stormy, and autumn is of short duration.

211. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The constant humidity is favourable to vegetation, but the storms are injurious to the growth of forest trees. The larger wild animals have disappeared, but game is very abundant. Domestic animals—horses, cattle, fowl, swine,—form the principal wealth of Denmark, which is essentially an agricultural country. The Danes have made very little progress in manufactures; but their country is favourably situated for trade, and their commerce is advancing in prosperity. The principal trading towns are Copenhagen, Altona, Elsinore, Flensburg, Aarhus, Kiel, Rendsborg, Tonningen, and Glückstadt. The canal of Kiel is a valuable means of internal communication. A railway from Altona to Kiel has been projected.

212. *Government and Institutions.*—The government was made an absolute monarchy in 1660; but in 1834 the King granted his people a free constitution. The schools of Denmark are very numerous; but the intellectual and moral condition of

the Danes is depressed. The universities are those of Copenhagen and Kiel. Denmark is distributed into three military divisions: the war navy is small, but respectable; and the merchant navy is flourishing.

213. *Provinces and Chief Towns.*—Denmark is divided into four great provinces, each of which is subdivided into bailiwicks and smaller districts. Copenhagen, the capital, is situated in $55^{\circ} 41'$ N. lat., and $12^{\circ} 36'$ E. long. Population in 1834 was 119,292.

KINGDOM OF DENMARK.—Copenhagen, Roskild, Helsingør (Elsinore), Aarhus.

DUCHY OF SCHLESWIG.—Schleswig, Flensburg.

DUCHY OF HOLSTEIN.—Glückstadt, Kiel, Altona.

DUCHY OF LAUENBURG.—Lauenburg.

214. *Foreign Possessions.*—Iceland; the west coast of Greenland; the islands of Santa Cruz, St. Thomas, and St. John, in the West Indies; portions of the coast of Guinea; Serampore and Tranquebar, in India. Heligoland belongs to Great Britain.

SECTION XI.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY.

215. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Sweden and Norway form the Scandinavian peninsula. Physically they are one region, but politically two independent kingdoms. The peninsula lies between 55° and 71° N. lat., and 4° and 32° E. long. Its greatest length is 1190 miles; its greatest breadth 470. Area of Sweden, 170,240 square miles; of Norway, 122,460. It is bounded north by the Northern Ocean; south, by the Baltic, Cattegat, and Scaggerack; east, by Russian Lapland, Gulph of Bothnia, and the Baltic; west, by the North

Sea and Northern Atlantic Ocean. Population of Sweden, 3,109,772; of Norway, 1,150,000.

216. *General Description of the Country.*—The coast of Sweden is irregular in its outline, and much indented with small bays: in Norway immense fiords penetrate the country in all directions. The surface of Scandinavia is very mountainous, especially in Norway; but the more southern parts of Sweden are low and flat. The chief mountains are the Langefeld, between Aggerhuus and Bergen; and the Dovrefeld and Kolen mountains, between Norway and Sweden. Among the larger bays are West Fiord and Drontheim Bay, on the west; Christiana Bay, on the south. The Moskoeström (Malstrom), near the southern extremity of the Lofoden Islands, is a dangerous whirlpool, caused by the rushing of the tide among these islands, and the great inequalities of the bottom. Nordkun is the most northerly cape of continental Europe. North Cape, the most northerly point of all, projects from the island of Mageroe. The Naze is the most southerly point of Norway. The chief islands are Gothland and Oland, in the Baltic; the Lofoden and Lofoden-Mageroe groups, in the ocean. The Glommen is the largest river of Norway; it falls into the Scaggerack after a course of 400 miles. The Tornea falls into the Gulph of Bothnia; the Mottala into the Baltic; the Gotha into the Cattegat; the Drammen into the Christiana Fiord; the Tana, which forms the north-eastern boundary between Norway and Russia, into the Tana Fiord. The lakes are very numerous, and Sweden contains three of the largest class: the Wener, 90 miles long by 36 broad, covering an

area of 2136 square miles; the Wetter, containing 830 square miles; and the Mälar, crowded with innumerable islands. The climate of Sweden is very severe; that of Norway less so. The extremes of heat and cold are violent, and the change from winter to summer is very rapid. The air of Sweden is generally dry and salubrious; that of Norway is more moist and changeable, and less healthy.

217. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The mines of Sweden are a principal source of her wealth: those of iron are the most extensive and rich. All the mountains of Norway, and especially those of the south, contain a great number of minerals and metals, among which may be mentioned gold, silver, iron, copper, and cobalt. The soil is poor: the forests are of great extent, consisting chiefly of beech, oak, fir, and birch. The domesticated animals are chiefly reindeer, horses, bees, goats, sheep, and swine. The agriculture of Sweden is increasing; in Norway cultivation is chiefly confined to the valleys. The fisheries are very extensive and valuable, especially in Nordland and Finmark. The manufactures are insignificant. The commerce of Sweden is depressed: that of Norway is more flourishing; its exports are timber and fish. Sweden possesses several useful canals; but there are neither canals nor railroads in Norway.

218. *Government and Institutions.*—The government of Sweden is a limited monarchy, hereditary in the male line. The principal executive body is the Council of State. The legislative power is vested conjointly in the King and a diet of four chambers, elected by the nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants. Although Norway is under the same crown as Sweden, its constitution is very different. The executive power is exercised by a Viceroy and a Council of State; but the legislative power resides in an elected body called the Stor-thing, or Great Court. Elementary instruction is very generally diffused; and there are universities at Upsal, Lund, and Christiana.

219. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns.*—Sweden is divided into three regions—Norland, Svealand, and Gothland. These are subdivided into 24 lars, or governments; and these

into districts. The chief towns are as follows. Stockholm, the capital; lat. $59^{\circ} 20' N.$, long. $17^{\circ} 54' E.$: population in 1839, 83,885. Upsala, Gefle, Gotheborg, Carlsrona, Christianstadt, and Wisby. Norway is divided into 17 amts, or districts. Its capital is Christiana, in $59^{\circ} 55' N.$ lat., and $10^{\circ} 48' E.$ long.: population, 24,000. The other chief towns are Bergen, a large seaport; Drontheim, formerly the residence of the Norwegian kings; and Frederiksvörn, the naval arsenal of Norway.

SECTION XII.

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

220. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Russia in Europe lies between 43° and $70^{\circ} N.$ lat., and 18° and $65^{\circ} E.$ long. Its greatest extent from north to south is 1720 miles; its greatest breadth 1791 miles: its area exceeds 2,000,000 square miles. The whole population considerably exceeds 60 millions. It is bounded north by the Arctic Ocean; west, by Sweden, the Baltic, Russia, and Austria; south, by Turkey and the Black Sea; east, by the Oural Mountains, Oural River, and Caspian Sea.

221. *General Description of the Country.*—The greater portion of Russia is part of the vast plain of central Europe. The northern slope of this plain forms the basin of the White Sea. The southern slope includes central Russia, the Steppes, and the country beyond the Volga. The third slope extends from the borders of Prussia to the Gulph of Finland, and declines to the Baltic. The northern slope is barren: the Steppes yield little more than grass; but some regions are covered with forests, and a few are

comparatively fertile. The chief gulphs are those of Riga and Finland, in the west of Russia; and the Bays of Arkangel and Onega, in the White Sea. The islands of Nova Zembla and Spitzbergen, in the Arctic Ocean, and of Aland, Dago, and Oesel, in the Baltic, belong to Russia. Domesness, at the entrance of the Gulph of Riga, is a dangerous cape. The principal mountains are the Oural, between Russia and Siberia; and the Valdai Hills, in the province of Novgorod. The more important rivers are the Dwina, Mezen, and Petchora, which flow toward the Arctic Ocean; the Neva, Duna, Vistula, and Niemen, which flow into the Baltic; the Dniester, Dnieper, Bog, Don, and Kuban, into the Black Sea; and the Wolga and Oural, into the Caspian Sea. Russia abounds with lakes; the largest of which are those of Ladoga, Onega, Ilmen, and Peipus. The climate of Russia, which comprises every variety, is of an extreme character; the winters being colder and the summers warmer than in the corresponding latitudes of western Europe.

222. Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.—Russia is chiefly an agricultural country, yielding most abundant crops of rye, oats, and wheat. While corn and cattle constitute the wealth of central Russia, the south yields the vine, mulberry, and other delicate products. The Russian forests are of immense extent, and supply in profusion timber, tar, pitch, potash, and turpentine. Cattle of every kind, horses, and sheep are bred in vast numbers, especially in the Steppes. The forests contain great numbers of bees, which yield an abundance of wax and honey for exportation. There are also many wild animals, whose skins and furs are important articles of trade in the northern districts. The fisheries of Russia are not the least important branch of its industry. Manufactures of various kinds, as of linen, cotton, cordage,

corn-brandy, and others, are making progress. The principal trading ports are St. Petersburg, Cronstadt, Riga, and Revel, on the Baltic Sea; Arkhangel and Onega, on the White Sea; Odessa, on the Black Sea. St. Petersburg engrosses the greater portion of the foreign trade; Moscow is the centre of the internal trade. The annual fair of Nishnei-Novgorod is probably the largest in the world. The roads throughout Russia are in general very bad; but all the great rivers, lakes, and seas have been connected by canals: so that there is uninterrupted communication from the Baltic to the Black Sea, the White Sea, and the Caspian.

223. *Government and Institutions.*—All political power emanates from the Czar, the autocratic Emperor of all the Russias. There are no legal limits to the monarch's will, but he is morally compelled to respect many privileges and usages. Public business is administered, under the Emperor, by the Imperial Council, the Senate, the Holy Synod, and the Committee of Ministers. The system of police is very efficient. The military power of Russia, though often exaggerated, is formidable at home. The naval force in the Baltic, the Black Sea, and the Caspian is considerable. The people are divided into four classes; nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants. Education is beginning to extend and improve; but the only universities of reputation are those of Dorpat and Vilna. The clergy are unduly subjected to the temporal power; and the great bulk of the people are comparatively uncivilized and superstitious.

224. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns.*—Russia is divided into 47 governments, or provinces; 5 of which are partly in Asia. There are 3 northern governments; 16 in Great Russia; 3 Baltic provinces; 6 in White Russia; 8 in Little or Red Russia; 4 in New Russia; 4 Volga provinces; 3 Oural provinces; the kingdom of Poland, constituted by the Congress of Vienna in 1815; and Finland. St. Petersburg, the capital, is in 59° 56' N. lat., and 30° 19' E. long.; its population is upwards of 470,000. The other chief towns are Moscow, the ancient capital; Warsaw, the ancient capital of Poland; Revel; Riga; Helsingfors; Arkhangel; Vologda; Tula; Kief; Odessa; Sebastopol; Vilna; Kazan; Astrakhan; Saratov; and Cracow.

SECTION XIII.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL.

225. *Situation and Boundaries.*—These two independent kingdoms compose, physically, a single compact peninsula; often called The Peninsula. This lies between 36° and 44° N. lat., and between 4° E. and 10° W. long. Its greatest length is 720 miles; its greatest breadth 630 miles: the area of Spain, 179,465 square miles; of Portugal, 36,596. The population of Spain is about 14, of Portugal about 4, millions. The peninsula is bounded north by the Bay of Biscay and the Pyrenees; south, by the Atlantic and Mediterranean; east, by the Mediterranean; west, by the Atlantic.

226. *General Description of the Country.*—This large peninsula lies at the south-western extremity of Europe. The interior consists of one vast elevated table-land, traversed by numerous mountains; branches of the Pyrenees, the Santillanos, the mountains of Castille, Sierra de Toledo, Sierra Morena, Sierra Nevada, Monserrat, Sierra de Estrella, and others. A narrow belt of maritime lowland slopes gradually towards the sea. The principal capes are Ortegal or Finisterre, in Galicia; Trafalgar, in Andalusia; San Martin, on the Mediterranean coast; the Rock of Lisbon, the most westerly point in the Continent of Europe; and Cape St. Vincent, also in Portugal. The islands are the Balearic, in the Mediterranean; the Azores, in the Atlantic; the Madeiras, and Cape Verde Islands, on

the coast of Africa. The river Ebro flows in a southeasterly direction into the Mediterranean; the Douro, westward, into the Atlantic; the Tagus, Guadiana, Guadalquivir, and others, each having several affluents, also flow into the Atlantic. The climate is, generally, equable, mild, and salubrious, but varies according to the elevation.

227. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The vegetable productions of the Peninsula are rich and various. Andalusia is the granary of Spain; but other districts, as Leon and Old Castile, are hardly less productive, especially in barley. The olive and the vine are successfully cultivated. Generally speaking, the Peninsula is deficient in forests; yet these abound in Cataluna and Biscay. Fragrant wild flowers are most various and abundant. The animal kingdom presents nothing remarkable. Agriculture is in a wretched state in both Spain and Portugal: but Spain is capable of yielding the richest wheat; and Portugal abounds in olive-trees, whose oil is a valuable article of trade. The silver, quicksilver, and cobalt mines of Spain, and the iron mines of Portugal, are valuable: other minerals are found, but the mines are not much wrought. The inland Spaniards are indolent; but those on the coasts, and many of the mountaineers, are active and enterprising. Considerable commerce is carried on, chiefly with France and England; with the latter country, to a great extent, through the medium of smugglers. The manufactures of Portugal are unimportant. Its separation from Brazil, and the loss of its Indian possessions, have greatly depressed its commerce. Subsequent political changes have been additionally injurious.

228. *Government and Institutions.*—The government of Spain is now professedly a constitutional monarchy. Before the Peninsular War,—A.D. 1808-1814,—it was an absolute monarchy; except in the provinces of Biscay, which enjoyed great privileges. But from 1810 to the present time, Spain has been convulsed by a succession of revolutions; and this country, once so powerful and dignified, is now prostrate and distracted. Education is much neglected. The universities of Spain, once so celebrated, are now in a state of comparative

ruin. The recent confiscation of Church property, for the use of the state, has exasperated the evils it was intended to cure.

229. The government of Portugal was originally a monarchy; but this country has been agitated by political convulsions no less than Spain. The present constitution was devised in 1820; and Portugal is now little better than a democratic republic, with an hereditary chief magistrate, exercising limited powers of royalty, under the counsel of responsible ministers. As regards its social condition, this country is backward and ill-organised in all respects. The Church has been unduly depressed; her revenues have been sacrilegiously confiscated; and infidelity has superseded religion.

230. *Provinces and Chief Towns of Spain.*—Spain is divided into 14 provinces. Madrid, the capital, is in 40° 25' N. lat. and 3° 38' W. long. Population, about 170,000.

1. NEW CASTILE.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Madrid.	Madrid.	Cuenca.	Cuenca.
Guadalajara.	Guadalajara.	Ciudad Real.	Ciudad Real.
Toledo.	Toledo.		

2. OLD CASTILE.

Burgos.	Burgos.	Avila.	Avila.
Logrono.	Logrono.	Leon.	Leon.
Santander.	Santander.	Palencia.	Palencia.
Oviedo (Asturias).	Oviedo.	Valladolid.	Valladolid.
Soria.	Soria.	Salamanca.	Salamanca.
Segovia.	Segovia.	Zamora.	Zamora.

3. GALICIA.

Corunna.	Corunna.	Orense.	Orense.
Lugo.	Lugo.	Pontevedra.	Pontevedra, St. Jago.

4. ESTREMADURA.

Badajoz.	Badajoz.	Caceres.	Caceres.
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5. ANDALUSIA.

Provinces.	Chief Towns.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Seville.	Seville.	Jaen.	Jaen.
Huelva.	Huelva.	Cordova.	Cordova.
Cadiz.	Cadiz.		

6. GRANADA.

Granada.	Granada.	Malaga.	Malaga.
Almeria.	Almeria.		

7. VALENCIA.

Valencia.	Valencia.	Murcia.	Murcia.
Alicant.	Alicant.	Albacete.	Carthagenas, Albacete.
Castellon-de- la-Plana.	Castellon.		

8. CATALONIA.

Barcelona.	Barcelona.	Lerida.	Lerida.
Tarragona.	Tarragona.	Gerona.	Gerona.

9. ARRAGON.

Saragossa.	Saragossa.	Teruel.	Teruel.
Huesca.	Huesca.		

10. NAVARRE.

Navarre.	Pampeluna.
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11. GUIPUSCOA, OR THE BASQUE PROVINCES.

Alava.	Vittoria.	Guipuscoa.	St. Sebastian.
Biscay.	Bilboa.		

12. BALEARIC ISLANDS.

Majorca, &c.	Palma.	Canary Islands.	Santa Cruz.
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231. *Provinces and Chief Towns of Portugal.*—Portugal is divided into 6 provinces. Lisbon, the capital, is in 38° 42' N. lat. and 9° 6' W. long. Population, about 250,000.

Provinces.

Chief Towns.

Entre-Douro-e-Minho.
Tras-os-Montes.
Beira.
Estremadura.
Alemtejo.
Algarve.

Oporto, Braga.
Villa Real, Braganza.
Coimbra, Lamego.
Lisbon, Setubal.
Evora, Elvas.
Faro, Lagos, Tavira.

232. *Foreign Possessions of Portugal.*—The Azores, in the Atlantic, 9 in number; of which San Miguel and Terceira are the chief. Madeira, off the north-west coast of Africa, whose capital is Funchal.

SECTION XIV.

ITALY.

233. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Italy lies between 36° and 47° N. lat., and 5° and 19° E. long. It consists of two distinct portions: a continental peninsula, whose greatest length is about 700 miles, whose breadth (which varies greatly) averages 100 miles; and the islands of Sicily, Sardinia, Corsica, together with several smaller islands. Total area, 123,000 square miles. Population, upwards of 20 millions. Italy is bounded on the north by Austria and Switzerland; west, by France and the Mediterranean; south, by the Mediterranean; east, by the Adriatic.

234. *General Description of the Country.*—The northern border of Italy is formed by the Alps. Between the Alps and the Apennines, in northern Italy, lies the great plain of Lombardy, traversed by the Po, and gradually sinking towards the east to a fertile level terminating in a low sandy shore. The Apennines, in their progress southward and along the Gulph of Genoa, inclose many narrow valleys, but leave in some places spacious plains. The principal gulphs of Italy are those of Genoa, Gaeta,

Naples, Salerno, Policastro, and St. Eufemia, on the west; Squillace and Taranto, on the south; Manfredonia, Venice, and Trieste, on the east. The straits are that of Bonifacio, between Corsica and Sardinia; of Messina, between Italy and Sicily; and of Otranto, between Italy and Turkey. To the above-mentioned islands must be added Elba, between Corsica and Tuscany; the Lipari Isles, north of Sicily; and Malta (under Great Britain), south of Sicily. The Po is the largest river of Italy, and has numerous affluents. The other chief rivers are the Arno and the Tiber, both fed by many tributary streams. Italy is a well-watered country throughout. Its lakes are numerous, the principal being Lake Maggiore, Lake of Lugano, Lake of Garda, Lake of Perugia, Lake of Albano, Lake of Como, and Lake Averno. The Pontine Marshes, between Rome and Naples, though still insalubrious at certain seasons, have been considerably drained, and form a luxuriant pasturage for cattle. In consequence of its extent of latitude, mountainous and broken surface, and proximity to the sea, Italy has great varieties of climate. Besides this, it may be divided into four regions, passing from cold to sultry: Lombardy; Tuscany, the Papal States, and the northern part of the kingdom of Naples; central Naples; Calabria, Sicily, and the Lipari Isles. The clear blue sky of Italy gives a deceitful beauty to the landscape; but malaria, the Sirocco, and rapid and extensive changes of temperature render this country very insalubrious.

235. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—Lombardy is extremely fertile: the soil is naturally rich, and is well

watered upon a regular system. Silk is much cultivated in the north. The rice districts are valuable, but unhealthy. The Genoese territory yields the olive in abundance. The crops of Tuscany are considerable, especially in the valley of the Arno. Agriculture is generally backward in the Roman States. In the kingdom of Naples, the cultivation of the olive, the mulberry, and the vine is advantageously combined with arable industry. The plains of Apulia are devoted to pasturage. The minerals of Italy are of small amount: the most important are the rich iron mines of Elba. Several districts yield statuary marble. The fisheries contribute largely to the food of Italy: the principal are those of the tunny and the anchovy. The manufactures of Italy are comparatively unimportant: yet those of Lombardy and Venice are extensive; especially that of silk. The commerce of Genoa is active and valuable. The roads throughout northern and central Italy are generally good; and Lombardy abounds with canals.

236. Government and Institutions.—Italy is divided into 9 sovereign states; in all of which, the republic of San Marino excepted, the government is vested in an absolute monarch. The sovereignty of the States of the Roman Church is held by the Pope; who is elected for life by the college of cardinals, out of their own body. The Pope unites in his own person two distinct offices; he is Bishop and Patriarch of Rome, and temporal sovereign of the States of the Roman Church. The patriarchate of Rome does not legitimately extend beyond the limits of Italy and the adjacent islands. The universities and academies of Italy are numerous: as are also its libraries, museums, and institutions for promoting the fine arts.

237. Political Divisions and Chief Towns.—1. **KINGDOM OF LOMBARDY AND VENICE:** Milan, Pavia, Mantua, and Cremona; Venice, Verona, Padua, and Brescia.—2. **KINGDOM OF SARDINIA:** Turin, Genoa, Cagliari, Nice, and Chamberry.—3. **KINGDOM OF NAPLES, OR KINGDOM OF THE TWO SICILIES:** Naples, Palermo, Messina, and Catania.—4. **GRAND DUCHY OF TUSCANY:** Florence, Leghorn, and Pisa.—5. **DUCHY OF PARMA:** Parma.—6. **DUCHY OF MODENA:** Modena.—7. **DUCHY OF LUCCA:** Lucca.—8. **STATES OF THE ROMAN CHURCH:** Rome, once the mistress of the world, now the metropolis of the papal domination; situate on the banks of the Tiber.—9. **REPUBLIC OF SAN MARINO:** San Marino.

SECTION XV.

TURKEY IN EUROPE.

238. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Turkey in Europe lies between 39° and 48° N. lat., and 16° and 30° E. long. Its greatest length, from E. to W., is about 700 miles; its greatest breadth, from N. to S., about 650 miles. Area, nearly 180,000 square English miles. Population, about 12,180,000. Turkey is bounded on the north by Austria and Russia; west, by Dalmatia and the Gulph of Venice; south, by Greece and the Archipelago; east, by the Dardanelles, Sea of Marmora, Straits of Constantinople, and the Black Sea.

239. *General Description of the Country.*—Between the Danube and the northern frontier of Greece, the general surface of Turkey consists of a series of mountain ranges, of which the Balkans are the chief, inclosing high valleys and undulating table-lands. A narrow strip of lowland skirts the seacoasts. North of the Danube, the country sinks into a plain, which stretches north-eastward to the frontiers of Russia and the Carpathians, and includes Wallachia and Moldavia. The principal seas, gulphs, and circumjacent waters of Turkey are the Black Sea, or Euxine Sea of the Latins; the Thracian Bosphorus, or Channel of Constantinople; the Sea of Marmora, anciently called Propontis; the Hellespont, or Channel of the Dardanelles; the Archipelago, or *Ægean Sea*; and the Gulph of Arta, or Ambracian Gulf; with a few inferior gulphs in the Ionian and Adriatic Seas.

The capes are unimportant: but the ancient promontory of Actium, at the entrance of the Gulph of Arta, is celebrated as overlooking the site of the important battle of Actium, between Cæsar Octavianus and Mark Antony, B.C. 29. The island of Candia, the ancient Crete, belongs to Turkey. The Archipelago is thickly studded with islands; the chief of which are Imbro, Samothraki, and Lemnos. The Danube receives several affluents from Turkey. The Maritza drains the plain of Adrianople. The Salambría, or ancient Peneus, drains the celebrated vale of Thessaly. The lakes of Turkey are unimportant. The climate is various; changing with the locality, and much affected by the direction of the winds. At Constantinople, a north wind brings the cold of Russia; while a southern wind restores the balmy atmosphere of Greece.

240. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—In Croatia, Bosnia, and the adjoining provinces, the mountains are covered with forests of oak and elm. Wallachia abounds in fruit-trees: these disappear towards the south, and are replaced by the olive. The vine is general; but the richest grapes grow on the coasts of the Archipelago. In Thessaly, the garden of European Turkey, oil, wine, cotton, tobacco, figs, citrons, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, and other fruits, grow to perfection. The Thessalian horses are a superior breed. The cattle of Wallachia are large and strong. Sheep are numerous. Although Turkey is not a manufacturing country, some of its articles are superior; as the carpets of Anatolia, the silks and muslins of Constantinople, and the velvets, crapes, cambrics, and finer cottons of these and other towns and districts. The commerce between Turkey and England is very considerable. There are neither canals nor railroads in Turkey.

241. *Government and Religion.*—The government is an absolute monarchy, vested in a Padishah or Emperor; who is also Khalif, or Vicar of the prophet Mohammed. He also bears the title of Sultan; and is generally designated Grand

Signior by Europeans. The imperial court is often termed the Sublime Porte. The council of ministers is called the Divan. The Khalif delegates his religious administration to the Grand Mufti; an important personage, always chosen from the Ulema, which consists of the ministers of religion and the lawyers: the religion and law of the Moslem being both founded on the Koran, or pretended revelation made to the false prophet Mohammed or Mahomet.

242. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns.*—Turkey is divided, for administrative purposes, into four eyalets. It embraces nine provinces: Roumelia, including the ancient Macedonia and Thrace; Thessaly; Albania; Herzegowina; Bosnia and Turkish Croatia; Servia; Bulgaria; Wallachia; and Moldavia. The capital is Constantinople, called by the Turks Stamboul; situated at the southern entrance of the Thracian Bosphorus, in lat. $41^{\circ} 1' N.$, and long. $28^{\circ} 55' E.$ The other chief towns are Adrianople, in Roumelia; Bucharest, in Wallachia; Jassy, in Moldavia; Belgrade, in Servia; Jannina, in Albania.

SECTION XVI.

GREECE.

243. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Greece is situated between $36^{\circ} 15'$ and $39^{\circ} 10' N.$ lat., and $20^{\circ} 40'$ and $26^{\circ} 3' E.$ long. Its extent from N. to S. is 180 miles; and from E. to W., including all the islands, 300 miles. Area, about 20,000 square English miles. Population, 926,000. Greece is bounded on the north by Turkey; west and south, by the Mediterranean; east, by the Archipelago.

244. *General Description of the Country.*—The kingdom of Greece consists of Hellas Proper, the Morea, and the Islands. Hellas is a long tract of

hilly country; the mountains being so arranged as to enclose large basins, calculated to become the seats of small communities, such as were the States of ancient Greece. Eastern Greece is connected with the Morea by the Isthmus of Corinth. The Morea consists of the elevated central valley of Arcadia, and the five following maritime regions: Argolis, Laconia, Messenia, Elis, and Achaia. The principal islands are Negropont, Skyro, Ipsara, Egina, Salamis, and the Cyclades. The principal gulphs are those of Lepanto or Corinth, between the Morea and Hellas; of Egina, between Attica and Argolis; of Kolokythi and Koroni, on the south coast of the Morea. The largest river is the Aspropotamos, or ancient Achelous. The ancient Cephissus and Ilissus flow through the plain of Athens into the Gulph of Egina. The Eurystas falls into the Gulph of Kolokythi; and the Alpheus, after draining the south-western part of Arcadia, into the Gulph of Arcadia. These rivers are unimportant in size, and not navigable; but derive their interest from classical associations. The principal lake is that of Topolias, anciently Copais, in Western Bœotia. The mountains are a continuation of the Julian Alps: the principal chain is that of Pindus. Mounts Parnassus, Helicon, Olympus, and others, are classically famous. The numerous mountains of Greece—breaking up the country by their romantic heights and sheltering fertile plains; together with its great comparative extent of seacoast, with numerous headlands and bays,—render this land one of singular beauty: to which a very mild though variable climate, and a serene sky, impart additional charms.

245. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The crops of wheat and barley are very abundant. Attica yields olives and honey, as of old. The melons and gourds of Greece are excellent. This is eminently a pastoral country: the flocks of Arcadia are among the best. Manufactures are comparatively unknown; but commerce thrives.

246. *Government.*—Greece formed a part of the Turkish empire until 1821. In 1832 it was formed into a kingdom, under Otho, a Bavarian prince. In 1834 Athens was declared the capital.

247. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns.*—Greece was divided in 1833 into ten nomarchies. The chief towns are Athens, Nauplia, Patras, Egripo, Hydra, and Spezzia.

SECTION XVII.

IONIAN ISLANDS.

248. The Ionian Isles form a sovereign State, under the government of a High Commission, appointed by the sovereign of Great Britain. It consists of seven principal islands, and several smaller ones adjacent, lying along the western and southern coasts of Greece. The principal islands (with their ancient names) are Corfu (Corcyra Phœacia), Kephhalonia (Kephhalonia), Zante (Zacynthus), Santa Maura (Leucadia), Kerigo (Cythera), Thiaki (Ithaca), and Paxo (Paxus). Corfu is the seat of government. Agriculture is very backward; the chief product is the olive: Zante is famed for currants; Kephhalonia for grapes.

CHAPTER III.

ASIA.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW.

249. *Situation and Limits.*—Asia lies between $1^{\circ} 20'$ and 78° N. lat., and between 26° and 190° E. long. Its greatest length, from N. to S., exceeds 5800 miles; its greatest breadth, from W. to E., is about 5600 miles. Its area is four times that of Europe. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; south, by the Indian Ocean; east, by the Pacific Ocean; west, by the eastern boundaries of Europe, and by the Isthmus of Suez and the Red Sea, which separate it from Africa.

250. *Seas and Gulphs.*—The Pacific Ocean nowhere immediately washes the eastern coasts of the continent, but is separated from them by several chains of islands, which, with the coast, form a number of smaller sea-basins. The most northerly of these is the Sea of Kamtchatka, formed by the Aleutian Islands. The Kurilian Islands form the Sea of Tarakai. The next is the Sea of Japan. Then follows the open sea, called by the Chinese Tongo Hai (Eastern Sea), with its extensive northern gulph, the Wang Hai (Yellow Sea). From the Island of Formosa to the equator extends the Han Hai

(Southern Sea) of the Chinese, called by Europeans the Chinese Sea. The south coast of Asia is quite open to the Indian Ocean, except where it borders on the Chinese Sea. Here we find the Bay of Bengal, the Sea of Arabia, the Persian Gulph, the Gulph of Ajan, and the Red Sea. The north coast of Asia is indented by numerous deep bays; but these are rendered nearly inaccessible all the year round by ice.

251. *Straits*.—The principal straits of Asia are the Straits of Babelmandeb, between Arabia and Africa; the Straits of Ormus, at the entrance of the Persian Gulph; Palk's Strait, between Hindoostan and Ceylon; the Straits of Malacca, between the Eastern Peninsula and Sumatra; and Behring's Straits, between Asia and North America.

252. *Islands*.—Cyprus, in the Levant; Ceylon, south of Hindoostan; and many of those in the immense archipelagos on the south and south-east. These consist of many thousands of large and small islands, which belong partly to Asia and partly to Australia; the division being an arbitrary one. Japan, Formosa, the Philippines, the Moluccas, and that long chain of islands which, in the east begins with Timorlaut, and on the west terminates with Java, are considered to belong to Asia; while the numerous islands dispersed between the Moluccas and New Guinea are included in Australia.

253. *Continental Outline*.—Three great peninsulas project from the eastern coast of Asia; namely those of the Tshuktshes, of Kamtchatka, and of Corea. The gulphs on the southern coast form the peninsulas of India without the Ganges, India within the Ganges, and Arabia. On the western side we find the large

peninsula of Asia Minor. The principal capes are Cape Severo, north of Siberia; East Cape, at Behring's Straits; Cape Lopatka, south of Kamtchatka; Capes Cambodia and Romania, in the Eastern Peninsula; and Cape Comorin, south of Hindostan.

254. *Continental Surface*.—The surface of this large continent is very diversified. The northern portion of it forms a plain rising gradually from the shores of the Arctic Ocean, intersected by a number of very large rivers, and exposed without shelter to the piercing blasts of the north. The southern portion, which stretches along the Indian Ocean, is composed likewise of comparatively level regions, but exposed to the burning heat of the tropical sun. The central region consists of a series of elevated plains and mountains, from which rivers flow in every direction into the neighbouring seas. This central region is not, as was till recently supposed, a uniform table-land of great elevation, supported on all sides by lofty mountains; but appears, on the contrary, to be occupied by long ranges of mountains, with intervening plains and valleys, some of the latter of which have no great elevation.

255. *Mountains*.—Among the numerous mountains which intersect the surface of Asia, four great chains or systems may be distinguished, stretching nearly parallel to each other, in the direction of east and west; the Altai, the Tien-shan, the Kwan-hun, and the Himalaya. The Oural Mountains belong equally to Europe and Asia; they run, north and south, from the Arctic Ocean to the Sea of Aral.

256. *Rivers*.—Asia contains some of the largest rivers in the world. The following flow into the

Arctic Ocean: the Jenisei, with its affluents the three Tonguskas; the Obi, with its affluents the Irtish, the Ischim, and the Tobol; the Olenets; the Lena; the Indigirka; the Kolima. The Rioni and the Kizit Irmak fall into the Black Sea. The Sarabat and the Meinder, into the Archipelago. The Aazi or Orontes, into the Levant. The Euphrates and Tigris, the Ganges, the Indus, the Brahmapootra, the Irawady, and the Saluen, into the Indian Ocean. The Meinam and the Maykûang, into the Chinese Sea. The Yang-tse-kiang, Whang-ho, and the Amour or Saghalien, into the Pacific. The Oural, into the Caspian. The Sihon and the Oxus, into the Sea of Aral.

257. *Lakes*.—The Caspian Sea, on the north of Persia, and the Sea of Aral, in Independent Tartary, are salt-water lakes. Of fresh-water lakes, the Lake of Baikal, in the south of Siberia, is one of the principal; while the Lake of Tiberias or Sea of Galilee (also called the Lake of Gennesaret), in Palestine or Modern Syria, is the most celebrated, from its having been frequented by our Blessed LORD.

258. *Countries*.—These we shall consider in the following order: Turkey in Asia, Arabia, Persia, India, South-Eastern Peninsula, China, Turkestan, Russia in Asia, and Japan.

SECTION II.

TURKEY IN ASIA.

259. *Situation and Boundaries*.—Turkey in Asia lies between 30° and 42° N. lat., and 26° and 49°

E. long. Its greatest length, from Constantinople to the mouth of the Euphrates, is 1400 miles; and from the southern border of Palestine to the north-eastern extremity of Turkish Armenia, about 1100. But the outline is so much indented that the area is only about 500,000 square English miles. Population, 12,000,000. Asiatic Turkey is bounded on the north by the Black Sea and Russia; west, by the Archipelago and Mediterranean; south, by Arabia; and east, by Persia.

260. *General Description.*—This extensive country embraces three regions, which are geographically distinct: Asia Minor and Armenia; Mesopotamia, Assyria, and the low countries watered by the Euphrates and Tigris; and Syria, including Palestine. Asia Minor and Armenia consist chiefly of extensive and elevated table-lands, intersected by ranges of mountains several thousand feet higher. One mountain chain, the ancient Taurus, proceeds westward from Armenia into Asia Minor, running parallel to the shore of the Mediterranean, and then dividing into numerous branches. Anti-Taurus is another chain, extending into the interior of the peninsula of Asia Minor in a south-westerly direction. The country watered by the Euphrates and the Tigris is bounded on the north by the table-land of Armenia and the lofty ridges of Taurus; on the east, by a long line of mountains dividing it from the table-land of Iran; on the west and south-west, by Syria and the deserts of Arabia; and on the south-east it barely touches the Persian Gulph. Syria includes the ancient Phœnicia. Its coast is mountainous; but the more inland portion, east of the Orontes, is generally

flat. Its mountains run mostly north and south, parallel to the Mediterranean. Both Libanus and Anti-Libanus give out numerous lateral spurs; some of the former extending so as to project, like Mount Carmel, in bold headlands from the coast. Palestine consists principally of rugged hills and narrow valleys. Among the principal islands of Asiatic Turkey are Cyprus, Rhodes, Samos, and Mytilini (the ancient Lesbos). The principal rivers are the Euphrates, Tigris, Jordan, and Orontes. The Euphrates and Tigris rise in Armenia; flow generally parallel to each other in a south-easterly direction; and finally unite into a single stream, called the River of Arabia, which discharges itself into the Persian Gulph. The Jordan rises on the western slope of the Anti-Libanus or ancient Mount Hermon. After flowing through the fenny Lake Merom, it enters the Lake of Gennesareth. Emerging hence, it flows in a winding southerly direction for about 90 miles (its entire length being about 150 miles), until it falls into the Dead Sea. The Aazi or Orontes falls into the Mediterranean. The chief lakes are the Lake of Van, in Armenia; the Salt Lake of Koch-Hisar, in the centre of Asia Minor; the Dead Sea, in the south of Palestine; and the Lake of Gennesareth (called also the Sea of Cinnereth, the Sea of Galilee, and the Lake of Tiberias), about 70 miles north of the Dead Sea. The climate of Asiatic Turkey is almost as variable as that of European Turkey. Syria enjoys a fine variety of climates. The Arabian poets have said of Mount Lebanon that it bears winter upon its head, spring upon its shoulders, and autumn in its bosom, while summer lies sleeping at its feet.

261. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The agriculture of Ottoman Asia is very backward. Manufactures flourish in some of the larger towns. Among these we may mention the silk stuffs of Aleppo and Bagdad; the cotton stuffs of Mosul and other towns; the camlets and shawls of Angora; the carpets of Brusa, Aleppo, and Damascus; leather, tobacco, opium, cutlery, and glass. Commerce is active: the internal commerce is carried on by caravans; the maritime is chiefly in the hands of Europeans.

262. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns.*—Asiatic Turkey is divided into 20 governments, called *eyalets*. The chief towns in Asia Minor and Armenia are Smyrna, the general emporium of the Levant; Brusa, formerly the capital of the kings of Bithynia; Trebizond, on the southern coast of the Black Sea; and Erzurum, the chief town of Armenia. The chief towns in Syria and Palestine are Aleppo, the emporium of Northern Syria; Tripoli; Acre, famous in the history of the Crusades; Beyrout, the port of Central Syria; Damascus, a place of the highest antiquity; and Jerusalem. The chief towns of Mesopotamia are Diarbekr, Bagdad, and Busrah. A few shapeless mounds are all that remain of ancient Babylon, once "the glory of the Chaldees' excellency."

263. *Jerusalem.*—The celebrity of Jerusalem in sacred history requires us to notice this city at some length. It is supposed to be identical with the Salem of which Melchizedek was king in the time of Abraham. When the Israelites entered the Holy Land, 500 years afterwards, this city was held by the Jebusites, descendants of Canaan. It was taken by Joshua; but the Jebusites retained the citadel on Mount Zion, until dislodged by David. In the years 1012-1004 B.C. Solomon erected the Temple. Palestine was afterwards successively invaded by the Egyptians, Assyrians, and Babylonians; the last of whom, under Nebuchadnezzar (B.C. 588), destroyed Jerusalem, and carried away the people captive to Babylon. Seventy years after, the Jews were restored by Cyrus. Judea was subsequently invaded by monarchs of the Macedonian Empire, who were successfully opposed by the Maccabees. But the all-absorbing power of Rome afterwards extinguished the independence of the Jews; and Syria was reduced by Pompey to a proconsular province. Jerusalem

retained, however, a certain sovereignty until after the Birth of CHRIST; when it became the residence of a procurator. The Crucifixion of CHRIST brought down upon it the Divine curse, and in A.D. 70 it was taken by Titus. The emperor Adrian afterwards razed it to the ground. When Christianity, in the reign of Constantine, became the religion of the Roman Empire, no efforts were spared to raise Jerusalem into the metropolis of Christendom; but its brief prosperity was terminated in A.D. 636 by its capture by Omar. After being more than 400 years subject to the Arabian caliphs, Jerusalem fell under the yet more oppressive rule of the Turks. The indignation of Christendom was at length aroused, and the Crusades ensued. A temporary success attended these brilliant wars; but, after several vicissitudes of fortune, Jerusalem again fell, in 1519, into the power of the Turks, who have maintained their dominion ever since. Thus have the predictions of the prophets and of our LORD been fulfilled.

SECTION III.

ARABIA.

264. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Arabia lies between 12° and 36° N. lat., and 32° and 60° E. long. Its greatest length is 1690 miles; its greatest breadth 1400 miles; its area about 1,100,000 square miles. It is bounded on the south-west by the Red Sea; on the east and south-east, by the Arabian Sea, on the north-east, by Persia and the Euphrates; on the north-west, by Syria and Palestine, but this boundary is not precisely defined.

265. *General Description.*—Arabia is a large peninsula, having the greater part of its boundaries washed by the sea and the Euphrates. It occupies the south-western corner of Asia. It appears to be

an immense pile of naked mountains and table-lands, encircled by a belt of flat, dry, sandy ground along the seacoasts. The north-western portions are mountainous. The triangular peninsula formed by the fork of the Red Sea is very rugged. A continuation of the ridge of Anti-Libanus runs along the coast parallel to the Red Sea, increasing in elevation as it extends southward. The Red Sea is a great inlet of the Indian Ocean; its northern portion is divided into the Gulph of Suez and the Gulph of Akaba: it communicates with the ocean by the Straits of Babelmandeb. Beyond the more western of these Straits is the Gulph of Arabia, or Gulph of Aden. The Gulph of Oman, or Gulph of Ormus, lies between Arabia and Persia; meeting at its eastern extremity the Persian Gulph. A great pearl bank extends along the Arabian shore. The capes of Arabia are unimportant. No part of this country contains any rivers or large streams. The only island of any considerable extent is that of Bahrein, on the southern shore of the Persian Gulph. The climate of Arabia varies in its three natural divisions; namely, Arabia Petraea (the stony), to the north-west; Arabia Deserta (the desert), in the centre and south-east; and Arabia Felix (the happy), to the south. In this last, the air is mild, with regular rainy seasons: but in the vast plains of the desert, the temperature is excessively hot, and the soil is proverbially dry and barren.

266. *Produce and Commerce.*—We have already noticed the great pearl fishery of Bahrein. Ambergris and coral are found in the seas adjoining Socotra. Arabia yields numerous fruit-trees and aromatic shrubs. The grain is superior. The horses and camels of Arabia are justly celebrated. Of the

former there are two distinct breeds; one for draught, the other for riding. The Arabian camels are one-humped; and those which, being lighter, are trained for riding, are called dromedaries, a name signifying racers. The exports consist chiefly of spices, perfumes, coffee, Socotrine aloes, ivory, gold, frankincense, myrrh, and gum-arabic.

267. *Government and Religion.*—The Arabs are divided into petty tribes, under the government of Sheikhs or Emirs. They are either “townsmen,” including villagers; or “Bedouins,” that is, “men of the desert.” Those of the northwest and along the coasts of the Red Sea have been subjected to the vigorous rule of the Pasha of Egypt; those in Mesopotamia and Syria are nominally subject to the Sultan: but most of the tribes retain their original independence, under their patriarchal chiefs. Few of the modern Arabs, if any, are descendants of Ishmael, as is vulgarly supposed. As regards religion, they are Mohammedans of the Soonee sect, excepting perhaps a few remaining Wahabees.

268. *Chief Towns.*—Mecca is celebrated as the birthplace of the false prophet Mohammed or Mahomet. Medina contains the prophet's tomb. Muscat is a large town in Oman, and the capital of a state whose sultan is commonly called the Iman of Muskat.

SECTION IV.

PERSIA.

269. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Persia is situated between 26° and 39° N. lat., and between 44° and 62° E. long. Its length, from the Caspian Sea to the Persian Gulph, is 720 miles; and its breadth, from the junction of the Euphrates and Tigris to the borders of Affghanistan, 620 miles. Area, 500,000 square miles. The population is conjectured to be about 8 millions. It is bounded on the north by Russia, the Caspian Sea, and Tar-

tary; west, by Turkey in Asia; south, by the Persian Gulph; and east, by Affghanistan.

270. *General Description.*—The name Persia is generally applied by European geographers to the wide region which extends from the basin of the Euphrates and Tigris, eastward to the Indus; and from the Indian Ocean, northward to the borders of Turkestan and the Caspian Sea. This region is now politically divided into the Kingdom of Iran, or Persia Proper; Affghanistan, or the Kingdom of Cabul; and Beloochistan. We shall here describe Iran. Low sandy plains lie along the shores of the Persian Gulph. Along the shores of the Caspian there is a similar narrow tract; but profuse in vegetation, though insalubrious. Between these two narrow lowland belts lies an extensive desert tableland, traversed by ranges of mountains. The deserts of Persia are saline, and entirely destitute of trees. The rivers are few and unimportant. The islands are Kishma and Karak, in the Persian Gulph; and Ormus, at its entrance.

271. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—The great mass of the fixed inhabitants are engaged in agriculture and manufactures; the nomadic tribes are herdsmen and shepherds. Wheat and rice are the chief agricultural produce. The Iranee or Persians have a natural talent for the mechanical arts: they excel in the manufacture of sabres, shawls, carpets, and brocades. The principal commercial towns are Tabriz, Ispahan, Shiraz, and others. The principal port on the Persian Gulph is Bushire; those on the Caspian are Enzillee and Balfrosh.

272. *Government and Religion.*—The government of Persia is despotic. The Shah is regarded as the vicegerent of the prophet; and, as such, is entitled to implicit obedience. His two principal ministers are the Grand Vizier and the Lord High Treasurer. The Persians are Mohammedans of the sect called Shiites.

273. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns.*—Persia is divided into eleven provinces:—**IRAK-ADJEMI**, the ancient Media, whose chief towns are Teheran, the residence of the Shah, and Ispahan, formerly the capital of Persia; **MAZANDERAN**, Sari and Balfrosh; **GHILAN**, Reshd; **ADZERBIJAN**, Tabriz and Khor; **KOORDISTAN**, Kermanshah; **KUZISTAN**, Dezphoul and Shuster; **FARS**, Bushire and Shiraz; **KERMAN**, Kerman; **KHORASSAN**, Meshed and Yezd; **LARISTAN**, Lars; **KOHISTAN**, Bunpoor.

SECTION V.

AFFGHANISTAN.

274. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Affghanistan is situated between 25° and 37° N. lat., and between 58° and 72° E. long. Its length, from north to south, is 800 miles; its breadth, from east to west, 750 miles; its area, 400,000 square miles. Population, 6 millions. It is bounded on the north by Independent Tartary; west, by Persia; south, by the Indian Ocean; and east by Hindoostan.

275. *General Description.*—Affghanistan consists of high valleys and table-lands, separated by lofty mountains. The mountain chains render the climate for the most part temperate. In some places, however, the heat of summer is very great, particularly towards the sandy deserts of the south: the valleys are rich and luxuriant. The chief mountains are the Soliman Mountains, in the east; and the Hindoo-Koosh and Gaur Mountains, in the north. The rivers are the Indus, flowing into the Arabian Sea; and the Helmund, falling into Lake Zurrah.

276. *Produce, Manufactures, and Commerce.*—Much of the soil is rich and productive; but agriculture is extremely rude. Manufactures in cotton, wool, and silk are domestic only; and the disturbed state of the country has put a stop to the large and valuable caravans which formerly carried the rich productions of India and Cashmere to Cabul and Herât.

277. *Government and Chief Towns.*—The Affghans are divided into numerous tribes, each governed by a Khan, upon the patriarchal model. The two principal tribes are the Dooranees and Ghiljees. The chief towns are Cabul, Candahar, Ghuznee, and Jelalabad.

SECTION VI.

BELOOCHISTAN.

278. *General Description.*—This country lies between Affghanistan on the north and the Indian Ocean on the south, and comprises an area of about 150,000 square miles. The greater part of the country is mountainous, and a large portion of it is entirely desert. The climate is generally healthy. Fruits and grain are abundant, but the soil is little cultivated. The people are divided into two distinct nations: the Beloochees, in the west; and the Brahoes, in the east. Kelat is the capital of the Beloochees: the Brahoes have no town of importance.

SECTION VII.

INDIA.

279. *Situation and Boundaries.*—India is situated between 7° and 35° N. lat., and 67° and 97° E. long. Its natural boundaries are well defined: on

the north, the gigantic range of the Himalayas; on the south-east and south-west, the Indian Ocean; on the north-west, the range of mountains beyond the Indus; on the east, the Bay of Bengal and the Eastern Peninsula. Its length, from Cape Comorin to the Himalaya Mountains, is 1800 miles; its breadth, from the borders of Beloochistan to the east of Bengal, 1500 miles. Area, 1,250,000 square English miles. Population, 141,000,000.

280. *General Description.*—Hindoostan is sometimes called the Western Peninsula, or India within the Ganges; while the Eastern Peninsula is called India beyond the Ganges. The Himalayas extend along the whole of the northern and north-eastern frontier of India. To the south of these mountainous and hilly regions extend the great plains of Hindoostan; which are watered by the Indus, the Ganges, the Brahmapootra, and their numerous affluents. These plains fall with a very gradual slope to the shores of the ocean, on the eastern and western sides of peninsular India. The southern part of India forms a large triangular peninsula projecting into the Indian Ocean. A range of lofty mountains called the Ghauts run along the western coast of this peninsula. One of the most remarkable regions of India is the Great Desert, comprising about an eighth part of its whole surface. The chief gulphs of India are those of Cutch and Cambay on the west, and the Bay of Bengal on the east. The following are the principal rivers: the Indus, with its numerous affluents, including the Lundye or Cabul River, the Chenab or Punjund, and the Suttlej; flowing into the Arabian Sea. The Ganges, with

the Hoogly, the Jumnah, and many other large tributary rivers; flowing into the Bay of Bengal. The Brahmapootra, Godavery, Kistna, and Cauvery also fall into the Bay of Bengal. The Nerbudda and Tuptee fall into the Gulph of Cambay. The Runn of Cutch is a very singular morass, containing about 6500 square miles. The principal islands of India are the Nicobar and Andaman Islands, in the Bay of Bengal; Ceylon (whose capital is Colombo), south of the Carnatic; the Laccadives and Maldives, west of the Malabar Coast. The climate of the low countries of India is tropical, and the year is divided into the dry and rainy seasons. But the summits of the mountains are clothed with perpetual snow; while the climate of the intermediate regions is temperate and delightful. The monsoons are the most remarkable peculiarity of the Indian climate.

281. *Productions.*—The more important vegetable productions of India are cotton, indigo, and sugar, with various grains and spices. The chief rice country is Bengal. In the eastern and southern provinces the fruits are chiefly tropical. Timber of all kinds is abundant. The banyan-tree is the most remarkable vegetable production of India. Elephants and camels are among the most useful animals. The minerals are diamonds, the sapphire, the ruby, and the topaz; and there is a rich pearl fishery on the western shore. The principal manufactures are fine muslins and calicoes (so named from Calicut, where they were first made), fine ivory, and works in metal. Indigo, silks, Cashmere shawls, aromatics, and drugs are among the chief exports.

282. *Inhabitants.*—Throughout the wide extent of India there is greater diversity of character and language, manners, customs, and occupations, among the natives, than is to be found in the whole of Europe. The country contains at least thirty distinct nations. The Brahminical Hindoos appear to have been at one time divided into four castes; but this division can hardly be said to exist at present. Those

castes which exist are regarded as more or less pure: all beneath these are called pariahs, and are in a very degraded state. Besides the Hindoos who profess Brahminism, there are in India multitudes of people and numerous tribes, differing from each other in origin, religion, and habits of life. Among these we may name the Bheels, Budhuka, Coolies, Goorkhas, Jarejahs, Jauts, Mahrattas, Parsees, Rajpoots, Sikhs, and Thugs. Of the European residents, the British are by far the most numerous and powerful. As regards religion, "Of all idolatries I have ever read or heard of," says Bishop Heber, "the religion of the Hindoos really appears to me the worst." Next after Brahminism comes Buddhism, a sort of religion of reason. In the native states, the governments are rude despotisms. The superintendence, direction, and control of the whole civil and military government of the British territories and revenues in India is vested in a Governor-General and Councillors, styled "The Governor-General of India in Council." These are subject to the orders of the Court of Directors of the East India Company, acting under the superintendence of the Board of Control in England, and ultimately responsible to the British Parliament.

283. *Political Divisions and Chief Towns:*

NORTHERN HINDOOSTAN

Comprehending all the countries north of the Nerbudda River, and south of the Himalaya Mountains.

British Territories.

	Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Divisions.	Chief Towns.
Bengal Presidency.	{ Bengal.	{ Calcutta.	Agra.	Agra.
		{ Moorsshedabab.	Delhi.	Delhi.
		{ Dacca.	Bahar.	Patna.
	{ Allahabad.	{ Benares.		
		{ Allahabad.		

Tributary States.

Oude.	Lucknow.	Holcar's	{ Indore.
	{ Jaipoor.	Territory.	
Rajpootana.	{ Jhodpoor.	Guicowar's	{ Baroda.
	{ Odeypoer.	Territory.	
	{ Bhopal.		
Malwa.	{ Dewas.		
	{ Dhor.		

Independent States.

Divisions.	Chief Towns.	Divisions.	Chief Towns.
Scindia's Territory.	Gwalior.	Punjaub.	Lahore.
Sinde.	Ougein.	Nepaul.	Catmandoo.
	Hyderabad.		

CENTRAL HINDOOSTAN

Comprehends the countries between the Nerbudda and Kistna Rivers.

British Territories.

Bombay Presidency.	<div> <div>Bombay.</div> <div>Poona.</div> <div>Visiapore.</div> <div>Surat.</div> </div>	Northern Circars.	<div> <div>Masulipatam.</div> <div>Rajahmundry.</div> <div>Vizagapatam.</div> <div>Ganjam.</div> <div>Juggernaut.</div> </div>
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Tributary States.

Rajah of Sattara.	Sattara.	The Nizam.	Hydrabad.
Rajah of Berar.	Nagpoor.		Aurungabad.

Independent States.

Portuguese States.	Goa.
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SOUTHERN HINDOOSTAN

Comprehends the countries between the Kistna River and Cape Comorin.

British Territories.

Madras Presidency.	<div> <div>The Carnatic.</div> <div> <div>Madras.</div> <div>Arcot.</div> <div>Pondicherry.</div> <div>Tanjore.</div> <div>Trichinopoly.</div> <div>Bangelore.</div> <div>Nellore.</div> <div>Ongole.</div> <div>Tinnevely.</div> </div> </div>	<div> <div>Bellary.</div> <div>Cuddapah.</div> <div>Malabar.</div> <div>Canara.</div> <div>Guntoor.</div> </div>	<div> <div>Bellary.</div> <div>Cuddapah.</div> <div>Calicut.</div> <div>Mangalore.</div> <div>Guntoor.</div> </div>
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Tributary States.

Mysore.	Seringapatam.	Travancore.	Trivandrum.
Cochin.	Cochin.		

SECTION VIII.

EASTERN PENINSULA.

284. *Situation and Boundaries.*—This extensive region is bounded on the north by Thibet and China; west, by Hindoostan and the Bay of Bengal; south, by the Straits of Malacca and the Gulph of Siam; and east, by the Gulph of Tonquin and the Chinese Sea. It lies between $1^{\circ} 30'$ and 26° N. lat., and between 92° and 108° E. long. Its length, from north to south, is 1800 miles; and its breadth, from east to west, 960 miles.

285. *General Description.*—This region forms a large peninsula, projecting from the borders of India and China southwards into the Indian Ocean, and terminating in a long narrow promontory, forming the southern extremity of the continent. The surface is occupied by several long ranges of mountains, which extend from north to south, forming between them wide valleys and maritime lowlands, which are drained and watered by large rivers rising in the mountainous regions between India and China. The principal rivers are the Irawady, in the Birman Empire; the Saluen; the Meinam, in Siam; the Mekon; and the Saung, in Lower Cambodia. The principal of the numerous islands are Tantalem, Junk-Ceylon, and Penang.

286. *Climate, Soil, and Natural Productions.*—In the Birman Empire, the seasons are regular, and the air is salubrious and of moderate temperature. In Siam, the winter, which resembles a European summer, is dry; the summer is moist. The

climate of the Empire of An-nam is generally fine, but various; that of Cambodia and Tonquin resembles that of Siam: in Cochin-China the seasons are reversed. The soil of the Eastern Peninsula is generally fertile. The forests are extensive, especially those of teak. The other vegetable productions are rich and various.

287. *People and Government.*—Birmah is inhabited by many distinct tribes. The Siamese belong to the Mongolian variety. The people of An-nam consist of various races. The Laos seem to be the parent stock of both the Siamese and the Assamese. All the governments are pure despotisms. The Malays are notorious pirates.

288. *Political Divisions.*—The whole peninsula may be divided into six portions: the Birman Empire, the Kingdom of Siam, the Empire of An-nam, the Country of the Laos, the British Provinces, and the Malay States. Birmah comprises Ava and Pegu. The Empire of An-nam comprises Cambodia, Tonquin, and Cochin-China. The British Provinces are Martaban, Penang or Prince of Wales' Island, Malaca, and the Island of Singapore.

289. *Chief Towns.*—Ava, the capital of Birmah; Bangkok, of Siam; Hue, of Cochin-China; Ketah, of Tonquin; Saigon, of Cambodia. Moulmein is the capital of the British province of Moulmein or Martaban; and Georgetown of Prince of Wales' Island.

SECTION IX.

CHINA.

290. *Situation and Boundaries.*—China is situated between 20° and 42° N. lat., and between 97° and 123° E. long. It is bounded on the north by Chinese Tartary; on the west, by Thibet; on the south, by the Eastern Peninsula; and on the east, by the Pacific Ocean. Its greatest length, from north to south, is 1500 miles; its greatest breadth, from

east to west, about 1100. Area, 1,298,000 square English miles. Population, probably not less than 362 millions.

291. *General Description.*—China consists of a series of river-basins, and of lowlands along the sea-coast, divided by ranges of hills which rise in some places to a very considerable elevation. The principal gulphs, &c. are the Gulph of Tonquin, the Gulph of Canton, the Strait of Formosa, the Yellow Sea, and the East Sea. The chief islands are Hainan, on the south; Tai-wan or Formosa, and the Loo-Choo Islands, on the south-east; and Macao, in the Bay of Canton. The principal rivers are the Kiang or Blue River, one of the longest and largest rivers of Asia, flowing eastward through the middle of China; the Whang-ho or Yellow River, in the north; and the Si-kiang or Pearl River, flowing past the city of Canton.

292. *Climate and Natural Productions.*—The temperature of China is considerably lower than that of the European countries in the same latitudes, and is more subject to excessive variations; yet upon the whole it is highly salubrious. The southern provinces possess the usual products of tropical regions. Rice is the principal object of cultivation. The most remarkable production is the tea-plant, of which the Chinese botanists reckon 200 species.

293. *Manufactures and Commerce.*—The industry of the Chinese is wonderful. Agriculture is well understood. They excel in the manufacture of silks, cottons, and porcelain; also in embroidery, dyeing, ivory-cutting, and similar delicate works of art. The internal commerce of China is much more important than the foreign, and is carried on by means of rivers and canals. All foreign commerce is conducted through certain Hong merchants, eighteen in number. The chief port is Canton, whose principal export is tea.

294. *Religion, Government, and Political Divisions.*—The principal false religions of the Chinese are those of Buddha or

Fo, and of Confucius, their great philosopher, who was contemporary with Solomon. But almost every form of false religion prevails; "the gods of China," to use their own expression, "are in number like the sands of Havy River." The government is a sort of patriarchal despotism; limited, however, by the fixed rights of a literary aristocracy. China is divided, for administrative purposes, into eighteen large provinces. The public functionaries are divided into nine ranks: their common title is Quan; but by Europeans they are commonly called Mandarins.

295. *Chief Towns.*—Pe-king, the capital of the empire; Nan-king, celebrated for its porcelain pagoda; Sou-chew-foo, a very large and flourishing commercial city; Canton, or Quang-chou-foo, the grand emporium of European and American commerce.

296. *Territories beyond China Proper.*—The principal of these are the six following:—1. MONGOLIA; an elevated valley inclosed between the Altai Mountains and those of Thibet. The people, though naturally warlike, are of pastoral habits. The country is divided into several principalities, independent of each other, but all under the military rule of China. 2. LITTLE BUCHARIA; a wide plain extending eastward from the Belur-tagh: Yarkhand is one of its largest cities. 3. MANTCHOURIA forms, with Corea, one geographical region, lying along the eastern coast of Asia, between China and Siberia. The greater part of Mantchouria is occupied by the basin of the Amoor and its affluents. The Mandchews conquered China in 1640. 4. COREA lies between the Yellow Sea on the west, and the Sea of Japan on the east: its capital is King-ki-tao. 5. THIBET is a region of tablelands, deep valleys, and high mountains, lying between India on the south, from which it is separated by the Himalayas; China, on the east; Chinese Tartary, on the north; and the unexplored countries, forming the basin of the Upper Indus, commonly called Little Thibet, on the west. Religion, which is a variety of Buddhism, is the basis of the political and social system: every district has its Lama; the chief of whom is the Grand Lama, who resides at Lassa. Thibet is neither an independent kingdom nor a province of China: it is merely a geographical region divided into a number of states

tributary to the Grand Lama, who is under the protection of the Emperor of China. 6. LOOCHOO is an insular kingdom in the Pacific, eastward of Formosa.

SECTION X.

TURKESTAN OR TARTARY.

297. *Situation and Boundaries.*—This country lies between 36° and 51° N. lat., and 45° and 78° E. long. From east to west it extends about 1350 miles; and from the northern frontier of Persia to the frontier of Russia, about 1260. It is bounded on the north by Siberia; west, by the Caspian Sea; south, by Persia and Affghanistan; and east, by Chinese Tartary. Area, 800,000 square miles.

298. *General Description.*—The greater part of the country is composed of sandy plains, intersected by a few rivers, and studded with small lakes. It rises gradually from the shore of the Caspian and Aral towards the south and east; on both which sides it is inclosed by high mountains, which give rise to its principal rivers. The largest river is the Amoo, or ancient Oxus, falling into the Sea of Aral. The Sea of Aral is a lake in the western part of Turkestan. There are several lakes in the Steppes of the Kirghiz.

299. *Climate and Natural Productions.*—The climate of the plains and steppes of Turkestan is subject to extremes of heat and cold. The natural productions peculiar to this country are comparatively few and unimportant: the horses are the most valuable domestic animals.

300. *Natural and Political Divisions.*—Turkestan has never been all subjected to the same sovereign. It may be con-

sidered as naturally divided into, 1. The Steppes of the Kirghiz; 2. The Transoxana of the Latin geographers, between the rivers Amoo and Sir; 3. The Hill Countries, along the southern and eastern borders. It is divided politically into numerous states of unequal extent and population. The principal of these are the Khanats of Bokhara, Khokand or Ferghanah, Khiva, and Koondooz. The independent tribes of the Kirghiz Steppes have no fixed residences: they dwell in tents. The chief towns of Bokhara are Bokhara, Samarcand, and Balkh; of Khokand, Khokand; of Khiva, Khiva; and of Koondooz, Kulm,

SECTION XI.

RUSSIA IN ASIA.

301. *Situation and Boundaries.*—Asiatic Russia is situated between 38° and 76° N. lat., and between 60° E. and 190° E. or 170° W. long. Its length, from east to west, is 4880 miles; its breadth, from north to south, 1800 miles. Area, 5,370,000 square miles. Population, about 8 millions. It is bounded, north, by the Northern Ocean; west, by Russia in Europe; south, by Tartary, Turkey, Persia, and the Caspian Sea; east, by the Pacific Ocean.

302. *General Description.*—Asiatic Russia is a continuation of the great plain which extends from the German Ocean to the Oural Mountains. This vast plain, sloping upwards from the Arctic Ocean to the Altai and Oural Mountains, forms the basins of the great rivers that flow towards the polar regions. It consists almost entirely of steppes and marshes, though along the southern borders it is fertile and

luxuriant. It terminates with Kamtschatka, which is a bleak and barren country, abounding in volcanoes. The principal mountains are Mount Caucasus, between the Black and Caspian Seas; the Oural Mountains, on the European border; and the Altai Mountains, between Asiatic Russia and Tartary. The chief capes are Cape Severo, in the north; East Cape, at Behring's Strait; and Cape Lopatka, in the south of Kamtschatka. The largest lakes are Lake Baikal, in Siberia; and Lake Erivan, in Armenia. The principal rivers are the Oby, with its tributary the Irtis, the Yenisei, the Lena, flowing into the Northern Ocean; the Volga, the Oural, and the Kur, flowing into the Caspian Sea. The Aleutian Islands lie between Kamtschatka and America; and the Kurile Isles between Kamtschatka and Japan.

303. *Climate and Natural Productions.*—In the south, the air is pure and the soil fertile. In the centre, vegetation is greatly checked by severe cold. Towards the north, the vast marshy plains are covered with almost perpetual snow. There are extensive forests in the south, and the general agricultural produce is abundant. The mines of Asiatic Russia are valuable.

304. *Manufactures and Commerce.*—The chief manufactures are those of leather, salt, and isinglass. The chief exports are sables and other furs, iron, caviar, and other natural productions.

305. *Divisions.*—The Russian Empire in Asia comprehends several countries and provinces of vast extent, which may be distributed into the Caucasian Provinces and Siberia. The Caucasian Provinces include Georgia, Shirvan, the Russian portions of Armenia and Azerbaijan, Imeritia, Mingrelia, part of Gurjel, Abkhaz, Circassia, Daghestan, Lesghistan, and the old province of Caucasus. Siberia is divided into two great regions, called Eastern and Western Siberia.

306. *Chief Towns.*—The chief town of Georgia is Teflis; of Russian Armenia, Erivan; of Eastern Siberia, Irkutsk; of Western Siberia, Tobolsk.

SECTION XII.

JAPAN.

307. *General Description.*—The empire of Japan consists of a group of islands in the Pacific Ocean, to the north-east of China, between 30° and 42° N. lat., and 128° and 143° E. long. The principal islands are Nippon, Kiu-siu, Sikokf, and Jessai. These have a very uneven surface, interspersed with rocky hills, several of whose summits are active volcanoes. Earthquakes are frequent and destructive. The climate is extremely variable: hurricanes are frequent. Rice and tea are extensively cultivated. Japan is peculiarly rich in minerals, especially gold. The silk and cotton manufactures rival those of Europe. The porcelain is even more esteemed than that of China. The internal trade is very extensive; but all foreign commerce, except with the Dutch, is strictly prohibited. The government is an hereditary absolute monarchy, holding the supreme power over a number of absolute hereditary principalities. The chief towns are Miyako, Yedo, and Osaka.

CHAPTER IV.

AFRICA.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW.

308. *Situation and Limits.*—Africa lies between $37^{\circ} 20'$ N. and $34^{\circ} 50'$ S. lat., and $51^{\circ} 30'$ E. and $17^{\circ} 33'$ W. long. Its greatest length, from north to south, is about 4988 miles; its greatest breadth, from east to west, about 4618 miles. Area, estimated at nearly 12 millions of square English miles. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic Ocean, the Straits of Gibraltar, and the Mediterranean Sea; on the east, by the Isthmus of Suez, the Red Sea, and the Indian Ocean; on the south, by the Antarctic Ocean.

309. *General Description.*—Africa is a vast peninsula, joined to Asia by the Isthmus of Suez. Unlike the other great continents, Africa presents a solid mass of land with a very regular coast, unbroken by large peninsulas, islands, bays, or gulphs; except only on the south-western side, where the Gulph of Guinea makes a deep and wide indentation. Throughout Africa, the countries immediately on the coast are, for the most part, low plains, above which the land rises by successive terraces, forming at their

highest level a series of immense table-lands, which seem to occupy the greater part of the unexplored interior.

310. *Mountains*.—In the north-western portion of Africa, between the Mediterranean Sea and the Sahara, are the Atlas Mountains, which consist of several chains or ranges. The Mountains of Abyssinia form a chain remarkable for its elevation and extent, whose prolongation towards the south-west joins the celebrated Mountains of the Moon. The Mountains of Kong, which are but little known, separate the low country of Guinea from the basin of the Kawara. In Southern Africa the Mountains of Lupata have long been celebrated.

311. *Deserts*.—These are eminently characteristic of Africa. The Great Desert, or Sahara, is more than 3000 miles long, and 1000 miles broad. This vast tract is sprinkled here and there with fertile spots, called oases, of various extent, and mostly habitable. By means of camels, which have been appropriately called “the ships of the desert,” regular tracts for commerce have been established across the sandy wastes of the Sahara. The Desert of Angad occupies the western part of the territory of Algiers. Among other deserts we may mention the elevated districts called Karoo, south of the river Gareep, lying between the mountain ranges which constitute the Cape territory.

312. *Rivers and Lakes*.—The chief rivers are the Nile, in Egypt; the Senegal, the Gambia, the Niger or Quorra, and the Zaire, in Western Africa; the Zambizi, in Eastern Africa; and the Gareep, in Southern Africa. The largest lake yet discovered is

the Tchad, in Central Africa. Lake Maravi is said to exist in the interior, north-west of Mozambique.

313. *Islands*.—The islands of Madagascar, Comoro, Bourbon, Zanzibar, Mozambique, and others, lie off the south-east coast. Socotra lies east of Cape Guardafui. The Madeira, Canary, and Cape Verd Isles lie off the north-west coast. In the Gulph of Guinea are found Fernando Po, St. Thomas, and other islands. St. Helena, Ascension, and Tristan da Cunha lie in the Atlantic Ocean.

314. *Capes*.—These are numerous: the principal are Cape Verde, the most westerly point of the continent; the Cape of Good Hope, its south-western point; and Cape Guardafui, its most easterly point.

315. *Divisions*.—We know too little of Africa to be able to distribute it into any exact geographical or political divisions. That we here adopt is the most convenient for the young geographer.

SECTION II.

NORTHERN AFRICA.

316. *Situation and Boundaries*.—Northern Africa comprehends Barbary; a long narrow tract forming the southern coast of the Mediterranean, west of Egypt. It lies between 28° and 36° N. lat., and $11^{\circ} 30'$ W. and $27^{\circ} 12'$ E. long.; extending about 2000 miles in length, and varying in breadth from a few miles to more than 400.

317. *General Description.*—The Atlas Mountains form the nucleus of Barbary. The rivers and lakes are few and unimportant. The ancient Syrtis Major and Syrtis Minor, now the Gulphs of Sidra and Khabz, are of great celebrity. The only large island is that of Jerbah, south-east of the latter gulph. Of that portion of Barbary which lies north of the Atlas Mountains, the soil is generally fertile; but to the south, there are only barren rocks and arid plains. The soil of Tunis, which comprises the greater part of the ancient Roman province of Africa Proper, is exceedingly fertile, and was once considered the granary of the world. The climate of Barbary is, on the whole, temperate.

318. *Political Divisions.*—Barbary is divided into four large independent states: Morocco, Algiers or Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli (including Barca).

319. *Morocco.*—The kingdom of Morocco occupies the north-west corner of Africa. The government is one of the most despotic in the world. The only important manufacture is that of Morocco leather: in return for this and a few other exports, the country imports the usual articles of European produce; the trade being chiefly carried on at the port of Mogadore. The more important towns are Morocco, Fez, Mekinez, Mogadore, and Faradant.

320. *Algiers or Algeria.*—Algiers extends along the Mediterranean Sea, eastward from Morocco. Until 1830, this country was governed by independent princes, called Deys; and the Algerines were notorious pirates. But since 1830, the French have taken the city of Algiers, and still maintain a doubtful hold upon a limited circumjacent portion of country, which they designate Algeria: they possess the coast from Bona to Oran. About a mile from Bona are the ruins of Hippo, the ancient bishopric of St. Augustine.

321. *Tunis.*—Tunis also extends along the coast of the Mediterranean, east of Algiers. It was once a province of the Ottoman Empire, but is now under the despotic rule of an

independent Bey. The city of Tunis is the capital. Carthage, the competitor with Rome for the empire of the ancient world, was situated not far from where Tunis now stands. Kernan is a town in great esteem among the Moslems; it contains a magnificent mosque.

322. *Tripoli*.—Tripoli is a narrow territory which extends along the coast, from the frontier of Tunis to the frontier of Egypt. It is now a province of the Ottoman Empire. Tripoli is the capital. Barca is a dependent province or beylik.

SECTION III.

NORTH-EASTERN AFRICA.

323. *Situation and Boundaries*.—North-Eastern Africa comprises the countries bordering on the Red Sea. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea; west, by Central Africa; south, by the kingdom of Aden; and east, by the Red Sea. It embraces Egypt, Nubia, and Abyssinia.

EGYPT.

324. *General Description*.—This ancient and celebrated kingdom occupies the north-east corner of Africa; of which about one-tenth only is capable of cultivation, the remainder being salt marshes, sandy plains, or rocky mountains. The habitable land along the valley of the Nile is about 500 miles long, with an average breadth of 8 or 10 miles. Population, 2,000,000. The valley of the Nile is bounded on both sides by ranges of mountains, which follow the course of the river from the cataracts to near Cairo, where they diverge; the

western range extending from that point north-westward to the neighbourhood of Alexandria, while the eastern range stretches to the head of the Red Sea. At the northern end of the long valley, below the point where the mountains diverge, and between them and the sea, lies the alluvial plain of Lower Egypt, intersected by the two great branches of the Nile which form between them the celebrated Delta. Eastward of the Delta is a rich and productive valley, supposed to have been the Land of Goshen. The Isthmus of Suez forms one of the most important features of Egypt. The only river of Egypt is the Nile; whose periodical inundations, produced by the heavy annual rains within the tropics, are the cause of the fertility of the plains of this country. The lake Mareotis is a large shallow lagoon, south-east of Alexandria.

325. *Climate and Productions.*—Surrounded by arid deserts, Egypt is much hotter than most other countries under the same parallel of latitude; but its winters are piercingly cold. The north winds, which in Egypt have almost the constancy of trade winds, carry all the evaporation of the Mediterranean Sea towards Central Africa, where it is deposited in rains, leaving scarcely as much over Egypt as produces a few showers in the year. To its singularly constituted atmosphere, and to the regular inundations of the Nile, Egypt owes the advantage of containing within its limits almost all the cultivated vegetables of the old world. But Egypt is almost entirely destitute of forests. Cotton has lately become an article of great commercial importance.

326. *Government, Political Divisions, and Chief Towns.*—The Arabs form the great body of the people: next to these are the Copts, descendants of the ancient Egyptians. The government of Egypt is at present a monarchical despotism, vested in the person of Mohammed Ali; who only nominally acknowledges the supremacy of the Sultan, and who is forcing European civilization upon his subjects. The chief towns of

Lower Egypt or Bahari, are Cairo, on the Nile; and Alexandria, on the Mediterranean: of Central Egypt or Vostani, Damietta and Rosetta: of Upper Egypt or Said, Suez, on the Gulph of Suez. Thebes, the original capital of Egypt, now exists only in its ruins. Memphis, the second capital of Egypt in point of antiquity, has now all but disappeared. The most celebrated antiquities of Egypt are the Pyramids, three in number, that of Cheops being the largest; the gigantic statue of the Sphinx; and that of Memnon.

NUBIA.

327. *General Description.*—Nubia embraces that vast region which extends southward from Egypt to the northern borders of Abyssinia, and eastward to the Red Sea. It has always been occupied by several independent tribes, but is now subject to the Pasha of Egypt. The greater part of the country consists of frightful deserts, burnt up by intolerable heat. The cities and towns are few and unimportant. Old Dongolah, once the most populous and thriving, is now a mere village. Sennaar, once the capital of Upper Nubia, is now almost deserted. At present, the chief towns of Upper Nubia are New Dongolah, Kartoom, and Sonakin: of Lower Nubia, Derr. Nubia contains some interesting antiquities, especially the temples of Ibsambool.

ABYSSINIA.

328. *General Description.*—The empire being now entirely dissolved, the name Abyssinia has become a mere arbitrary designation of the large indefinite country watered by the upper branches of the Nile. Abyssinia forms an extensive table-land,

intersected by mountains that are but little known. The largest of its numerous lakes is Lake Dembea; which contains eleven islands, the largest of which is Tzana. The temperature is cooler than that of Egypt and Nubia. The vegetable productions of Abyssinia are somewhat extra-tropical: a small grain called teff is made into bread for all classes. There are generally two harvests in the year. Many petty independent states have risen upon the ruins of the old empire: the chief of which are the kingdom of Amhara, comprising the central provinces, whose capital is Gondar; the strong kingdom of Tigré, peopled by the true Abyssinians, whose chief towns are Antalow and Adowah; and the kingdom of Shoa, which includes the southern portion of the late empire.

SECTION IV.

EASTERN AFRICA.

329. *General Description.*—Eastern Africa comprehends all the countries lying along the coast of the Indian Ocean, from the Straits of Babel-Mandeb on the north, to Delagoa Bay on the south. These are Adel and Ajan, inhabited by the pastoral Somaulis, whose chief towns are Zeila and Magadoxa; Zanguebar, chief town Melinda; Mozambique, chief town Mozambique; Sofala, chief town Sofala; Mocaranga, chief town Zimbao. These countries are inhabited by various negro tribes in a state of barbarism. They are generally fertile. Mozambique,

which belongs to Portugal, possesses a considerable trade in gold, which is washed down by the rivers in large quantities. Sofala yields the finest and purest gold in all Africa. Magadoxa is a great mart for gold, ivory, and wax. The foreign commerce of Zanzibar, which belongs to the Iman of Muscat, is considerable. The principal rivers are the Zambezi and Sofala, which fall into the Channel of Mozambique.

SECTION V.

SOUTHERN AFRICA.

330. *General Description.*—Southern Africa is a continuation of the above, from Delagoa Bay; including the whole country south of the Tropic of Capricorn. It is generally composed of long mountain ridges, extending in a direction nearly parallel to the seacoast, with intervening plains and valleys, which rise by successive stages to the table-land of the interior. One of the most remarkable mountains is Table Mountain, facing Cape Town. The principal rivers are the Gareep, the Olifant, and Great Fish Rivers, with their respective affluents. Saldanha Bay is one of the most commodious harbours in the world. Table Bay opens to the north-west. Algoa Bay is one of the winter harbours of the colony. There are several other valuable bays and harbours. There are a few small islands. The Cape of Good Hope is the south-western extremity of Africa. The climate is mild and salubrious. The

vegetation of South Africa is varied and beautiful: the heaths are unrivalled. In this country are found some of the largest and some of the smallest animals: the elephant, weighing 4000 lbs., and the black-streaked mouse, weighing only a quarter of an ounce; the giraffe, seventeen feet high, and the elegant zenik, only three inches; the ostrich, six feet high, and the creeper, a bird about the size of a cherry. The country is divided into Caffraria, the Country of the Hottentots, and Cape Colony; which last is divided into two provinces, the Eastern and the Western. The affairs of the colony are administered by a Governor, who resides at Cape Town, assisted by an executive council. The European settlers in South Africa are the Dutch and the British. The Caffres are a fine race of men. The Hottentots, the aborigines of the country, are a degraded people. Besides these, there are the Bosjemans or Bushmen, and other native tribes.

SECTION VI.

WESTERN AFRICA.

331. *General Description.*—Western Africa comprises the countries which lie along the coast of the Atlantic, from Sahara or the Great Desert on the north, to the Tropic of Capricorn on the south. The principal of these are Senegambia, and Upper and Lower Guinea. The chief mountains are the Camaroons and the Mountains of Kong, in Senegambia. The rivers are numerous and remarkable. The

Senegal, 950 miles long, falls into the Atlantic. The Gambia, a deep and wide river, also flows through Senegambia into the Atlantic. The Rio Grande is also in Senegambia. The Rio Volta flows between the Gold and Slave Coasts. The Niger or Quorra falls by many mouths into the Gulph of Guinea. The Zaire flows through Congo: the Coanza, between Angola and Benguela: the Bambarooque, after dividing Benguela from the Mataman Desert, falls into the Atlantic Ocean. The heat of the western coasts of Africa is most intense, and tornadoes are frequent. Forests extend along the marshy coasts and rivers. The palms are gigantic: the baobab is common in Congo; aromatic and nutritive vegetables are abundant; and the Guinea-grass, which covers large tracts, attains the height of from ten to thirty feet. Serpents, elephants, lions, tigers, leopards, panthers, and other wild and dangerous animals, abound in Western Africa. This country is occupied by several independent kingdoms, of which Ashantee and Dahomey are the principal. Their governments are absolute. The slave-trade is still carried on, clandestinely. The Foulahs are the most widely extended tribe. Senegambia is the country of the Foulahs, Yaloffs and Mandingoes. Upper Guinea includes Sierra Leone, Grain Coast, Ivory Coast, Gold Coast, Slave Coast, Ashantee, Dahomey, and Benin. Lower Guinea includes Loango, Congo, Angola, and Benguela. The Mataman Desert, south of Benguela, is inhabited by savages.

SECTION VII.

CENTRAL AFRICA.

332. *General Description.*—Central Africa includes those countries south of the Great Desert, situate on the Niger, Senegal, and around Lake Tchad. These are numerous: the best known are Sangara, Bambarra, Kong, Timbuctoo, Borgoo, Yaouri, Yarriba, Fundah, Benin, Bornou, Darfur, and Fellatah. Central Africa includes Central and Eastern Soudan. These, with the maritime regions of Guinea and Senegambia, compose Soudan or Negro land; whose grand physical characteristics are one great range of mountains—the Mountains of Kong; one great river—the Niger or Quorra; and one great lake—the Tchad. Besides the Niger, numerous rivers intersect Central Africa. The Mountains of the Moon are said to traverse this whole region from east to west. Lake Tchad, on the frontier of Bornou, is about 200 miles long and 150 broad. Some portions of Central Africa are fertile, but the greater part is sandy and barren. The zoology is rich and various: the elephant, the hippopotamus or river-horse, the giraffe, the zebra, monkeys, and antelopes; among birds, the aigrette and parroquet; together with venemous insects and reptiles, including ants and wild bees, are most numerous. The principal towns are Kankan, Sego, Jenneh, Kong, Timbuctoo, Yaouri, Rabba, Fundah, Bonny, Angornou, Warra, and Saccatoo. The people are chiefly either Pagans or Mahometans.

SECTION VIII.

AFRICAN ISLANDS.

333. *Madagascar*.—Madagascar, in the Indian Ocean, about 240 miles from the coast of Mozambique, is 930 miles long, and from 70 to 330 broad; containing an area of about 235,000 square miles. The population has been estimated at more than $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions. Tananarivo is the capital. Madagascar is divided into 28 provinces, each under a separate chief: but the despotic chief of the Ovahs is in fact sovereign of the island.

334. *The Comoro Isles*.—These are four in number, of which Comoro is the largest.

335. *Bourbon*.—This island belongs to France, and is one of its chief colonial possessions. Its chief town is St. Denis.

336. *Mauritius*.—This island, formerly called the Isle of France, now belongs to Great Britain. Its capital is Port Louis.

337. *Socotra*.—This island, east of Cape Guardafui, yields Socotrine aloes and dragon's-blood in great abundance.

338. *Cape Verde Islands*.—These are a numerous group in the Atlantic Ocean, off the west coast of Africa. They are all of volcanic origin. They belong to Portugal.

339. *Fernando Po*.—This island, together with Prince's Island, St. Thomas', and Annobon, situate in the Gulph of Guinea, are nominally subject to Portugal.

340. *St. Helena*.—This island, which belongs to England, is celebrated as having been the ocean prison of Napoleon Buonaparte. It is 1200 miles from the African coast, and 1800 from that of America. It presents to the sea, on all sides, an immense perpendicular wall of rock, from 600 to 1200 feet high.

341. *Ascension Island, and the Islands of Tristan da Cunha*.—These serve as places of refreshment to British vessels. The shores of Ascension Island abound in turtles.

342. *Canary Isles*.—These are seven in number, and belong to Spain. Teneriffe is the largest.

343. *Madeira Islands*.—These are three in number, and belong to Portugal. The principal town is Funchal. The temperature of Madeira is remarkably uniform and mild. Its chief exports are Madeira and Malmsey wines.

CHAPTER V.

NORTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW.

344. *Situation and Limits*.—North America lies between 9° and 74° N. lat., and between 55° and 168° W. long. Its length, from north to south, is

4500 miles; its breadth, from east to west, nearly 3000 miles. Area, 9 millions of square miles. Population, 32 millions. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; west, by the Pacific; south, by the Gulph of Mexico and the Isthmus of Darien which unites it to South America; and east, by the Atlantic.

345. *Gulphs and Bays*.—The chief of these are Baffin's Bay, north-west of Greenland; Hudson's Bay, in British America; the Gulph of St. Lawrence, between Newfoundland and the continent; Chesapeak Bay on the east, and the Gulph of Mexico on the south of the United States; and the Gulph of California, on the west of Mexico.

346. *Straits*.—The principal of these are Davis' Straits, between Greenland and America; Hudson's Strait, north of Labrador; the Straits of Belleisle, between Newfoundland and Labrador; and Behring's Straits, between Russian America and Asia.

347. *Islands*.—Iceland and Greenland, in the Northern Ocean; Newfoundland, Prince Edward's Island, and Cape Breton, in the Atlantic; and the Aleutian Islands, with many others, in the North Pacific Ocean.

348. *Peninsulas*.—Nova Scotia, in British America; Florida, in the United States; and Yucatan and California, in Mexico.

349. *Capes*.—Cape Farewell, in Greenland; Cape Charles, in British America; Sable Point, in Florida; Cape St. Lucas, in California; and Cape Prince of Wales, at Behring's Straits.

350. *Mountains*.—The most extensive mountain ranges are the Alleghany Mountains, in the United States; and the Rocky Mountains, extending almost the whole length of the continent.

351. *Rivers*.—America abounds with rivers, some of which are the largest in the world. The principal of these are the St. Lawrence, in British America; the Mississippi, in the west of the United States, receiving the Missouri on the right, and the Ohio and Tennessee on the left; the Rio del Norte, in Mexico; the Columbia, in the Western Territory; and the Mackenzie, Coppermine, and Great Fish Rivers, in the Indian countries.

352. *Lakes*.—Among the more important lakes are the Great Slave Lake and Lake Winnipeg, in the Indian countries; Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, Erie, and Ontario, between British America and the United States; and Lake Nicaragua, in Guatemala.

353. *General Description*.—There is a striking resemblance between North and South America. Both are broad in the north, and gradually contract as they advance towards the south, till they end, the one in a narrow isthmus, the other in a narrow promontory. Each has a lofty chain of mountains near its western coast, abounding in volcanoes, with a low ridge on the opposite side, destitute of any trace of volcanic agency; and each has one central plain, which declines to the north and south, and is watered by two gigantic streams. In their climate, however, and in their vegetable and animal productions, the two regions are very dissimilar.

354. North America may be divided into six regions:—1. The narrow region which separates the Gulph of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea from the Pacific Ocean, traversed throughout its whole length by ranges of mountains, which leave a narrow tract

of lowland along the seacoasts, while in certain portions of the interior they form elevated tablelands. 2. The maritime region, between the Pacific Ocean on the west, and the ridge of mountains which extends from Cape St. Lucas, in California, northwards to Alashka. 3. The elevated region, which forms a sort of table-land between the maritime region on the west, and the Rocky Mountains on the east. 4. The great central valley of the Missouri and the Mississippi, extending from the Rocky Mountains on the west, to the Alleghany or Appalachian Mountains on the east; and from the Gulph of Mexico northwards to 45° or 50° N. lat. 5. The eastern declivities of the Alleghany Mountains, and the maritime region extending thence to the shores of the Atlantic. 6. The great northern plain beyond 50° N. lat.; a bleak and desolate waste, abounding in lakes.

355. *Countries*.—North America includes Russian North America, British North America, the United States, Texas, Mexico, California, Yucatan, the United States of Central America, and the West Indies.

SECTION II.

RUSSIAN AMERICA.

356. *General Description*.—This territory comprehends the north-western portion of the continent, covering an area of about 390,000 square miles. It is in the immediate possession of the Russian American Company. New Archangel is the capital.

The Russian dominion, however, over the vast solitudes of this region is merely nominal. The chief occupation of the tribes is hunting fur-yielding animals.

SECTION III.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

357. This region comprises the Territories of the Hudson's Bay Company, Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Honduras, and Newfoundland.

TERRITORIES OF THE HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY.

358. These include Labrador and East Maine, on the east side of Hudson's Bay; and New North Wales and New South Wales, on its west side; with the interior countries farther west, as far as the Arctic and Pacific Oceans and the Russian frontier. The Oregon Territory extends westward from the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific Ocean. By convention with Spain in 1817, its southern boundary was fixed at the parallel of 42° N. lat.; but the northern boundary is unsettled, and is a subject of dispute between Great Britain and the United States. Nearly the whole region is drained by the river Columbia. Fort Vancouver is the Company's principal depôt. The chief trade of these territories is in fur.

CANADA.

359. *Situation.*—Canada lies between 42° and 51° N. lat., and 61° and 81° W. long.; being about

1400 miles long, from east to west, and from 200 to 400 miles broad. Once divided into the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, it is now one country for legislative purposes.

360. *General Description.*—Canada is intersected by mountainous ridges, which extend from the coast far into the interior; between these lie extensive valleys, which are generally fertile. From 45° N. lat., which is the boundary line between Canada and the United States, to the river Chaudiere, near Quebec, there is a tract of excellent and fertile land; which will probably become the most flourishing portion of the province. That portion of the country which lies between Lake Erie and Lake St. Clair is perhaps the most delightful part of Canada. The St. Lawrence, with its affluents, of which the Ottawa is the most important, is the chief river of Canada, and one of the largest rivers in the world. It traverses Lakes Superior, Huron, Erie, Ontario, and St. Clair. In its passage from Erie to Ontario, it forms the magnificent cataracts of Niagara.

361. *Climate and Natural Productions.*—The opposite extremes of heat and cold are felt in all their excess. The snow-storms and hurricanes are violent. The snow, when hardened by the frost, is easily and agreeably traversed by means of sledges, called carioles. The thaw, in April, is followed by an almost instantaneous summer. The greater portion of Canada is still covered with forests. Tobacco, hemp, and flax, the different kinds of grain and pulse, are successfully cultivated; and likewise all the common fruits and vegetables. There are numerous wild animals. Fish is found in the rivers and lakes in great variety and abundance.

362. *Commerce.*—The chief exports of Canada are timber and furs: the former of these being chiefly promoted by artificial restrictions on the importation into Great Britain of the superior timber of the Baltic. The foreign trade of Canada

is carried on through the ports of Quebec, Montreal, St. John's, Coteau-du-lac, and Stanfield.

363. *Government*.—Canada was subject to France until 1759; when Quebec was taken by General Wolfe. It is now a colony of Great Britain, under the government of a governor-general appointed by the Crown, and assisted by a Council. The legislative assembly meets at Kingston in Upper Canada. The French Canadians preponderate in Lower Canada.

364. *Divisions and Chief Towns*.—Canada is divided into two provinces: Upper or Western Canada, and Lower or Eastern Canada. The chief towns of the former are Toronto and Kingston; of the latter, Quebec, Montreal, and Three Rivers.

NEW BRUNSWICK.

365. *General Description*.—This province is a compact territory of 27,700 square miles, lying between Canada and Nova Scotia. It is profusely watered by rivers. Timber and fish are the staple articles of export. Frederickton is the capital.

NOVA SCOTIA, CAPE BRETON, AND HONDURAS.

366. *General Description*.—*Nova Scotia* is a peninsula, connected by a narrow isthmus with New Brunswick. Halifax and Sydney are the principal towns. *Cape Breton* is an island. *Prince Edward's Island*, whose capital is Charlotte-town, must be mentioned under this head. *Honduras* is situated on the eastern coast of Central America. The soil is capable of yielding most European as well as tropical products. Mahogany and logwood are its staple exports. Balize is the only town. Honduras is governed by a superintendent nominated by the Crown.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

367. *General Description.*—Newfoundland is a large island, forming the eastern side of the Gulph of St. Lawrence. It has numerous commodious harbours, lakes, and rivers. The climate is severe, and the coasts are subject to dense fogs; yet the island is generally healthy. Its staple produce is cod-fish. The genuine Newfoundland dog now exists only on the coast of Labrador. St. John's is the capital of Newfoundland.

SECTION IV.

UNITED STATES.

368. *Situation and Boundaries.*—The United States lie between 25° and 49° N. lat., and between 67° and 124° W. long. They are bounded on the north by British America; west, by the Pacific Ocean and Mexico; south, by the Gulph of Mexico; and east, by the Atlantic Ocean. The whole of this vast region contains an area of about 2,300,000 square miles: its greatest length, from the Pacific Ocean to the Atlantic, is about 2500 miles; its greatest breadth, from north to south, nearly 1400. But the actually organized states occupy an area of about 1,300,000 square miles only: the remainder is occupied by native Indian tribes.

369. *General Description.*—The Alleghany or Appalachian and the Rocky Mountains divide the country into three great portions; the eastern, mid-

dle, and southern. The Alleghanies are less a chain of mountains than a long plateau, running nearly parallel to the Atlantic, whose mean elevation is not more than 2000 or 3000 feet; and whose highest range is in New Hampshire. The Rocky Mountains, which form the western boundary of the Mississippi valley, are a prolongation of the cordilleras of Mexico: their base is about 3000 feet above the level of the sea. Midway between these are the Ozark Mountains. But the mountains of the United States are not their most striking physical feature. Vast rivers, numerous swamps and marshes, forests and prairies of immense extent, are far more characteristic. The Mississippi, with its tributaries,—the chief of which are the Missouri, the Ohio, and the Arkansas,—drains an area of more than one million square miles, and falls into the Gulph of Mexico. The other chief rivers are the Connecticut, flowing through Massachusetts and Connecticut into Long Island Sound; the Hudson, into the Atlantic, at New York; the Delaware, into Delaware Bay; the Susquehanna and Potomac, into Chesapeak Bay; the Savannah, into the Atlantic; and the Columbia, through the western territory, into the Pacific. The chief lakes are Lake Michigan, in the north-west; and Lake Champlain, between Vermont and New York. The principal bays are Massachusetts' Bay, in the east of Massachusetts; Delaware Bay, between New Jersey and Delaware; and Chesapeak Bay, between Maryland and Virginia. Among the capes are Cape Anne and Cape Cod, in Massachusetts; Cape May, in the south-east of New Jersey; Cape Charles and Capé Henry, at the entrance of Chesapeak Bay; Capé

Hatteras, Cape Look-out, and Cape Fear, in North Carolina; and Cape Tancha or Sable Point, in the south of Florida. Long Island and Staten Island belong to New York; Nantucket belongs to Massachusetts.

370. *Climate, Soil, and Natural Productions.*—The climate of the United States embraces every variety of temperature, from the cold sea air of Passamaquoddy, to the dry, elastic, and severe temperature of the White and the Green Mountains; rising through all the degrees of the thermometer to the climate congenial to the olive, the sugar-cane, and the orange. Though beautiful to the eye, the atmosphere and climate of the United States are very changeable and exciting; and therefore exhausting and injurious both to body and mind. The soil is generally capable of cultivation. The swamps and prairies are covered with luxuriant vegetation; forests of vast extent ascend the mountain sides; and the cultivated plains yield all the vegetable productions of European countries. Agricultural products are the principal articles of export; especially wheat, maize, cotton, rice, and tobacco. The United States are richly supplied with valuable minerals.

371. *Manufactures and Commerce.*—The principal occupation of the people is agriculture; but manufactures are making rapid progress. The chief are those of cotton, woollens, leather, linens, glass, and paper. The fisheries are valuable. The commerce of the United States is very flourishing, especially that with Great Britain. New Orleans is the great centre of the inland trade. The four maritime States of New England are those most devoted to navigation and trade: and next to the New Englanders, the people of New York, Pennsylvania, and Maryland are the most commercial.

372. *Government and Institutions.*—The government, as established in 1787, is a federal representative democracy or republic. The executive power is vested in the President, who is elected every four years. The legislative power is vested in a Congress, consisting of a Senate and a House of Representatives; the former consisting of 48, the latter of 240 members. Every member is paid 8 dollars* a day for his

* A dollar is about 4s. 3d. English.

attendance during the session; together with his travelling expenses to and from Washington. The federal judiciary establishment consists of a Supreme Court, nine circuit courts, and thirty district courts. The Supreme Court sits at Washington, and is a powerful means of preserving the integrity of the Union. Such is the general government of the United States; and that of each of the separate states is formed very nearly on the same model. The colleges and schools are numerous. The great mass of the citizens are the descendants of emigrants from Great Britain and Ireland. The black population amounts to about one-sixth of the whole. Slavery exists in the States of Delaware, Maryland, Missouri, Arkansas, and all those south of the Potomac and the Ohio.

373. *Political Divisions.*—The Union consists of 26 states, 3 territories, and the small federal district of Columbia. These, with their chief towns or seats of government, are as follows:—

SIX NORTHERN STATES.*

Maine.	Augusta.	Rhode Island.	Providence &
New Hampshire.	Concord.		Newport.
Vermont.	Montpelier.	Connecticut.	Hartford and
Massachusetts.	Boston.		New Haven.

SIX MIDDLE STATES.

New York.	Albany.	Delaware.	Dover.
Pennsylvania.	Harrisburg.	Maryland.	Annapolis.
New Jersey.	Trenton.	Virginia.	Richmond.

THE METROPOLITAN DISTRICT.

Columbia.	Washington.
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FOUR SOUTHERN STATES.

North Carolina.	Raleigh.	Georgia.	Millidgeville.
South Carolina.	Columbia.	Alabama.	Tuscaloosa.

* These are together called New England: and their inhabitants are distinguished from other Americans by the name of *Yankees*; an Indian corruption of *English*.

TEN WESTERN STATES.

Michigan.	Detroit.	Kentucky.	Frankfort.
Ohio.	Columbus.	Tennessee.	Nashville.
Indiana.	Indianapolis.	Mississippi.	Jackson.
Illinois.	Springfield.	Louisiana.	New Orleans.
Missouri.	Jefferson.	Arkansas.	Little Rock.

THREE TERRITORIES.

Florida.	Tallahassee.	Iowa.	Burlington.
Wisconsin.	Madison.		

374. *Cities and Towns.*—In MAINE:—Portland and Bangor are the largest and most important. In NEW HAMPSHIRE:—Portsmouth contains one of the navy yards of the United States. Dover is the next largest town. In VERMONT:—Burlington and Middleburg. In MASSACHUSETTS:—As a commercial town, Boston, the capital, is second only to New York. Lowell is one of the principal manufacturing towns of the United States,—its “Manchester.” Salem and Springfield are also thriving towns. In NEW YORK:—The city of New York is the largest, most wealthy, and most flourishing in the United States; being the great mart of foreign commerce and inland trade. Brooklyn and Albany are considerable towns. In PENNSYLVANIA:—Philadelphia, formerly the capital of the United States, is distinguished as a manufacturing town, and is inferior only to New York and Boston in the extent of its commerce. Pittsburg, admirably situated, is a large manufacturing town; the “Birmingham” of the United States. In NEW JERSEY:—Newark and Patterson. In DELAWARE:—Wilmington. In MARYLAND:—Baltimore, a large and flourishing commercial city, with a capacious harbour. In VIRGINIA:—Wheeling, on the Ohio. In SOUTH CAROLINA:—Charleston and Hamburg. In ALABAMA:—Mobile. In MICHIGAN:—Munroe. In OHIO:—Cincinnati, Toledo, and Springfield are improving manufacturing towns. In ILLINOIS:—Chicago. In KENTUCKY:—Lexington, once the capital. In MISSISSIPPI:—Natchez. In FLORIDA:—St. Augustine, now decayed, the oldest town in the United States.

SECTION V.

TEXAS.

375. *General Description.*—The Texas formed one of the states of the Mexican confederation until 1835, when the Texians declared themselves independent; but they are now annexed to the United States. The chief towns are Houston and Galveston. The climate is mild, and the soil productive.

SECTION VI.

MEXICO.

376. *General Description.*—This republic occupies the narrow tract of country between the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific Ocean. Its general aspect is that of a vast plateau, between the eastern and western chains of the Cordilleras. The vale of Mexico contains a series of five lakes, whose waters fall into the river Panuco. Mexico is very rich in the precious metals. The temperature is very various; and the country includes three regions,—the hot, temperate, and cold. The population is singularly varied: the Creoles are the most powerful; the native Mexicans are the majority. Productive industry is in the lowest state of depression. The soil is rich, but the mines are the main sources of wealth. The towns are numerous; of which

Mexico, formerly surrounded by the Lake of Tezcuco, is the chief.

SECTION VII.

CALIFORNIA.

377. *General Description.*—The exact political boundaries of California are unsettled. The country is naturally divided into Old or Lower California, and New or Upper California. Lower California is a long narrow peninsula, between the Gulph of California and the Pacific; whose chief town is Loretto. The country is barren, and the people are rude. Upper California extends from the Pacific Ocean to the Rocky Mountains. Its surface is very diversified. Its chief town is San Francisco; one of the best harbours on the western coast of America. This country presents a striking contrast to the peninsula; having a profusion of forest trees, and pasturage for black cattle innumerable.

SECTION VIII.

YUCATAN.

378. *General Description.*—This state forms a large peninsula between the Gulph of Mexico and the Bay of Honduras. The soil is generally sandy and dry. The climate is hot, but healthy. The

people of Yucatan have declared themselves independent of the Mexican confederation. The chief towns are Merida and Campeché.

SECTION IX.

. UNITED STATES OF CENTRAL AMERICA.

379. *General Description.*—These states include the narrow tract of country which extends from Mexico to the Isthmus of Panama, between the Caribbean Sea and the Pacific Ocean. They comprise the five states of Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Salvador, and Costa Rica, the federal district of San Salvador, the almost independent territories of Poyais, and the Musquito Indians on the north-east coast. The country is chiefly occupied by ranges of mountains, which form a table-land in the central regions. Along the seacoast are many capacious gulphs and excellent harbours. Earthquakes are very frequent, and numerous volcanoes are scattered along the southern shores. The soil is extremely rich. The gold mines of Costa Rica, and the silver mines of Honduras, are very productive. The other staple productions are indigo, cochineal, mahogany, cedar, dye-woods, and drugs. The independence of Central America was declared in 1823. The principal towns are San Salvador, Guatemala, and Nicaragua.

SECTION X.

THE WEST INDIES.

380. *General Description.*—The West Indies comprise 5 large, and about 40 smaller islands, besides numerous rocky islets, interspersed with coral reefs and sandbanks. They are divided into three principal groups: the Bahamas; the Great Antilles; and the Lesser Antilles, including the Virgin, the Leeward, and the Windward Islands. The West Indies lie mostly within the tropics, and are therefore subject to great heat; but the interior highlands of Cuba, Hayti, Jamaica, and Porto Rico enjoy a mild temperature. The year may be divided into two seasons, the wet and the dry. The rich and varied vegetable productions of the West Indies give them an important place in the commercial world: the sugar-cane, the coffee-plant, pimento, the plantain and banana, the pine-apple, yam, maize, numerous dye-woods, drugs, and many valuable esculents.

381. *Political Divisions.*—The BAHAMAS, which are said to be 500 in number, belong to *Great Britain*. There are 14 principal islands; the largest of which is New Providence, whose chief town is Nassau. The GREAT ANTILLES are Cuba; Hayti, formerly St. Domingo and Hispaniola; Jamaica; and Porto Rico. Cuba and Porto Rico belong to *Spain*. Of all the West India Islands, Cuba is the largest and finest: it is one of the richest European colonies in the world: its chief towns are Havanna, Matanzas, and Trinidad. Hayti is an *independent republic*, having a negro population: its chief towns are Port-au-Prince and San Domingo. Jamaica belongs to *Great Britain*: it is well watered by upwards of two hundred rivers, descending from the Blue Mountains,

which traverse the whole length of the island: its chief town is Kingston: Spanishtown is the seat of government. The LESSER ANTILLES include Curaçoa, St. Eustatius and Saba; which belong, together with the south part of St. Martins, to *Holland*: St. Croix, St. Thomas, and St. John's; which belong to *Denmark*: Guadaloupe, and Martinique; which belong, together with the north part of St. Martins, to *France*: and Tortola, Anguilla, St. Kitts, Antigua, Montserrat, Dominica, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, Grenada, Barbadoes, Tobago, and Trinidad; which belong to *Great Britain*. Of the *Dutch* islands, Curaçoa is the largest, and St. Eustatius the best cultivated. Of the *Danish* islands, St. Croix or Santa Cruz is the only one of importance. Of the *French* islands, Martinique, whose great commercial town is St. Pierre, is the chief. Among the islands belonging to *Great Britain*, Antigua has a number of excellent harbours; and its capital, St. John's, is the station of the Governor-General of the Leeward Islands: Dominica is large and fertile: St. Vincent is the most beautiful of the Windward Islands: Grenada has several commodious harbours: Barbadoes, whose capital is Bridgetown, the oldest British possession, is the most easterly of the Windward Islands: Trinidad is remarkable for a pitch lake and mud volcanoes. The present population of the West Indies is partly European and partly African; the latter greatly preponderates.

CHAPTER VI.

SOUTH AMERICA.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW.

382. *Situation and Boundaries*.—South America lies between 12° N. and 56° S. lat., and between 35° and 82° W. long. It is bounded on the north

by the Caribbean Sea and the Isthmus of Darien; west, by the Pacific Ocean; south, by the Southern Ocean; and east, by the Atlantic Ocean. Its length, from north to south, is 4660 miles; its breadth, from east to west, 3160 miles. Area, 8 millions of square miles. Population, 15 millions.

383. *General Description.*—South America is a triangular peninsula, of which about three-fourths lies between the tropics, and one-fourth in the south temperate zone. From the configuration of its surface, this peninsula may be divided into five distinct physical regions:—1. The low country skirting the shores of the Pacific Ocean, of which the two extremities are fertile, but the middle portion is a sandy desert. 2. The basin of the Orinoco, surrounded by the Andes and their branches, and forming a region of extensive plains or *llanos*, covered with very long grass. During the dry season, the heat of these plains is intense, and the parched soil opens into long rents, in which lizards and serpents lie in a state of torpor. 3. The basin of the Amazon, a vast plain whose area exceeds two millions of square miles, possessing a rich soil and a humid climate. It is covered almost everywhere with dense forests, which harbour innumerable wild animals, and are thinly peopled by savages, who live by hunting and fishing. 4. The great southern plain, watered by the numerous affluents of the Rio de la Plata, and generally covered with a strong growth of weeds and tall grass, which furnish food for prodigious herds of oxen and beeves. 5. The high country of Brazil, eastward of the Parana and the Araguay; which presents alternate ridges and valleys, thickly

covered with wood on the side next the Atlantic, and opening into pasture lands in the interior.

384. The principal mountains of South America are the Andes or Cordilleras, extending along the whole western coast. The principal rivers are the Magdalena and Orinoco, in Colombia; the Essequibo, in Guiana; the Amazon and Francisco, in Brazil; and the Rio de la Plata, in La Plata. The principal gulphs and bays are the Gulphs of Darien and Maracaibo, on the north of Colombia; the Bay of All Saints, on the east of Brazil; and the Gulph of Guayaquil and Bay of Panama, west of Colombia. The principal capes are Cape St. Roque, in the east of Brazil; and Cape Horn, in the south of Tierra del Fuego. The principal straits are the Straits of Magellan, between Patagonia and Tierra del Fuego; and the Straits of La Maire, between Tierra del Fuego and Staten Island. The principal islands are Tierra del Fuego, south of Patagonia; the Falkland Islands, east of Patagonia; Juan Fernandez, west of Chili; and the Galapagos, west of Colombia. The largest lakes are Lake Maracaibo, in Colombia; and Lake Titicaca, in Peru.

385. *Countries.*—These we shall consider in the following order: Colombia, Peru, Bolivia, Chili, La Plata, Paraguay, Uruguay, Brazil, Guiana, and Patagonia.

SECTION II.

COLOMBIA.

386. *General Description.*—Colombia comprises the three republics of Venezuela, New Granada, and

Ecuador. It is naturally divided into three zones: the first comprehending the region between the Pacific Ocean and the Caribbean Sea and the Andes; the second, the mountainous region; the third, the immense savannahs which stretch southward and eastward from the Andes to the river Amazon, with the mountain border of the basin of the Orinoco.

387. *Venezuela*.—Venezuela comprises the eastern part of the country, stretching along the Atlantic Ocean and the Caribbean Sea, from the river Essequibo to the west side of the Gulph of Maracaybo. Caracas is the capital.

388. *New Granada*.—New Granada comprises the Isthmus of Panama and the adjacent north-western part of South America. Bogotá is the capital. Carthagena, an episcopal city, possesses one of the finest harbours in America.

389. *Ecuador*.—Ecuador is so named from its lying under the equator. Its chief towns are Quito and Guayaquil.

SECTION III.

PERU.

390. *General Description*.—This republic is situated on the western side of South America, and comprises an area of more than 500,000 square miles. Its western portion is occupied by the highest ranges of the Andes, while the eastern portion slopes down into the great plains which occupy the centre of the continent. Its capital is Lima, still the emporium of its trade. This country is more subject to earthquakes than any other.

SECTION IV.

BOLIVIA OR UPPER PERU.

391. *General Description.*—This country has Peru (or Lower Peru) on the north and north-west, and comprises an area of about 320,000 square miles. In the west it is traversed by lofty mountains, while in the east it stretches into immense plains. It is most unfavourably situated for commerce. Its capital is Chuquisaca. Potosi, a decayed city, stands near the celebrated silver mines.

SECTION V.

CHILI.

392. *General Description.*—Chili comprises the country between the crests of the Andes and the Pacific Ocean. The climate is equable, and the soil productive. Commerce, chiefly with Great Britain, is prosperous. Valparaiso is the commercial centre, and the principal port. Santiago is the capital.

SECTION VI.

LA PLATA.

393. *General Description.*—The united provinces of La Plata, or the Argentine Republic, comprise the greater part of the vast country lying between Brazil

and the Cordillera of Chili and Peru. The greater part of this region is a vast plain, traversed in its northern and central portions by the numerous affluents of the Plata, and stretching out to the southwest into the boundless *pampas*. It is divided into thirteen provinces, whose political relations are as yet unsettled. The provincial government of Buenos Ayres is the most powerful. The capital is Buenos Ayres.

SECTION VII.

PARAGUAY.

394. *General Description*.—Paraguay extends along the eastern bank of the river Paraguay, from the Rio Parana to the Rio Blanco; and is bounded on the south and east by the Parana. Asuncion (Assumption) is the capital: it is the centre of a considerable trade in hides, tobacco, timber, and other articles, including the *yarba-maté*, a peculiar species of tea.

SECTION VIII.

URUGUAY, OR THE BANDA ORIENTAL.

395. *General Description*.—This is a very compact territory, extending along the northern shore of the Plata, and bounded on the west by the river Uruguay. Its chief town is Monte Video, on the Plata.

SECTION IX.

BRAZIL.

396. *General Description.*—This country, which stretches along the Atlantic Ocean, is fifteen times as large as the kingdom of France. Nearly two-thirds of the country consist of highlands and mountains: a very small proportion is under cultivation. Large and navigable rivers—the Amazon with its tributaries, the Parana, and others,—connecting the harbours with the interior of the country; high mountain ranges, vast marshy forests, and extensive plains are the striking features in the Brazilian landscape. A great portion of this vast region, which comprehends about two-fifths of South America, is extremely rich and fertile. Diamonds are the most celebrated natural production. Sugar, coffee, and cotton are the most valuable of the numerous vegetable productions. The manufactures are unimportant, but the commerce is extensive. Brazil, formerly a Portuguese colony, is now a constitutional hereditary monarchy. Rio Janeiro is the capital: Bahia is a fine city.

SECTION X.

GUIANA.

397. *Divisions.*—Guiana is the name of that wide region which lies between Orinoco and the river Amazon. More, however, than one-half of Guiana

is now included within the northern limits of Brazil; about a fourth, within the limits of Venezuela: the remainder is divided into three portions, named British, Dutch, and French Guiana.

398. *British Guiana*.—British Guiana is the most westerly of the three, and comprises the country watered by the rivers Essequibo, Demarara, and Berbice. The staple vegetable productions are sugar, coffee, and cotton. Georgetown is the capital.

399. *Dutch Guiana*.—Dutch Guiana extends along the coast from the river Corentyn, which separates it from Berbice in British Guiana, to the river Maroni, which divides it from Cayenne in French Guiana. Its principal river is the Surinam. Its capital is Paramaribo.

400. *French Guiana*.—French Guiana is the most easterly of the three colonies, and extends along the coast from the river Maroni to the river Oyapok, the boundary of the Brazilian territory. Cayenne is the capital.

SECTION XI.

PATAGONIA.

401. *General Description*.—Patagonia is an extensive region, forming the southern extremity of the continent. It is little known to Europeans. The indigenous inhabitants are a tall and robust race: they possess no towns, but lead a wandering and unsettled life.

CHAPTER VII.

OCEANICA.

SECTION I.

MALAYSIA.

402. *General Description.*—Malaysia includes the numerous islands inhabited chiefly by people of the Malay race, immediately adjoining the south-eastern coasts of Asia, and formerly called the Indian Archipelago. It is wholly situate within the tropics; and possesses the common characteristics of tropical countries,—heat, moisture, and luxuriant vegetation. The islands are mountainous, and many are volcanic. They contain few plains, and no arid deserts. Where not cultivated, they are generally covered with stupendous forests. Unlike all other groups of islands, they are visited by periodical winds. Malaysia may be divided into six groups of islands: Sumatra and the smaller islands adjacent; the long chain of islands, including Java, extending east and west from the Strait of Sunda to New Guinea; the Banda and Molucca Islands; Celebes and the smaller adjacent islands; Borneo and the adjacent islands; and the Philippine Islands. The forms of government and religion are very various; ranging from anarchy to despotism, and from Fetishism to Islamism. While the negro races of the interior hardly rise above the level of the ourang and the chimpanzi, those on the coast are skilful mariners

and possess a considerable amount of rude civilization. The principal trading places are Batavia, Samarang, and Sourabaya, in Java; Rhio; Amboyna; Conpang, in Timor; Macassar, in Celebes; Manila, in Luzon; Borneo and Acheen, in Sumatra.

SECTION II.

AUSTRALASIA.

403. *Divisions.*—Australasia includes Australia or New Holland; Van Diemen's Land; New Zealand; Papua or New Guinea; New Britain, New Ireland, Solomon Islands, New Caledonia, New Hebrides, Queen Charlotte's Islands; Solomon's Archipelago; New Hanover; and Admiralty Isles; besides many smaller islands scattered over the intervening seas. We proceed to notice the principal of these more in detail.

404. *AUSTRALIA.*—Australia is a large and compact island, having an area of 3 millions of square English miles. The interior is almost wholly unknown. The Gulph of Carpentaria is a large expanse of sea on the north coast. Numerous islands line all the coasts. About one-third of Australia lies in the torrid zone; the remainder in the south temperate zone: the climate corresponds, but is extremely variable, yet generally salubrious. The vegetable and animal productions are very peculiar. The largest quadruped is the kangaroo. Horses, cattle, sheep, and swine, which have been introduced by European colonists, thrive abundantly. Insects

of every variety are innumerable. There are but few reptiles. Fish are plentiful. The Aborigines are among the most degraded of mankind. Most of the white inhabitants are of British origin. The chief British colonies are those of New South Wales, South Australia, Western Australia, and North Australia.

405. *New South Wales* occupies the south-eastern corner of the island. It is naturally divided into the region lying along the southern and eastern coasts, and a vast extent of inland plains, intersected by hills and rivers. The largest river is the Murray, which fertilizes a great extent of rich country. The lakes are small, but numerous. The grand staple products of this country are wool and whale-oil. This colony is a penal station for convicts. There are several towns, of which Sydney is the chief.

406. *South Australia* is a British province, whose colonists are, at present, chiefly engaged in pastoral and maritime pursuits. The south-eastern portion only has been explored. Adelaide is the capital; but Port Lincoln, a magnificent harbour, is vastly more eligible.

407. *Western Australia* lies in the south-western corner of the continent. Its most distinguishing features are three parallel ranges of primitive mountains. The country is generally better adapted for pasturage than agriculture. The principal colonial towns are Perth and Freemantle, on the Swan River; and Albany, on King George's Sound.

408. *North Australia* forms the northern part of the continent, extending westward from the Gulph of Carpentaria. The only settlement yet established

is at Port Essington, which has an excellent harbour. Victoria is its town.

409. VAN DIEMEN'S LAND.—This is also called Tasmania. It is nearly as large as Ireland. The country is generally mountainous: Mount Wellington rises nearly 4000 feet above the level of the sea, behind Hobart Town. There are several rivers, of which the Derwent and the Tamar are the chief. Numerous bays and harbours afford secure anchorage. The capes are also numerous. Many small islands lie off the coasts; the largest of which are Bruné, Flinders, Hunter Islands, and King's Island. Tasman's Peninsula is the penal station of the colony. The climate is generally dry and salubrious. The vegetable productions are numerous and beautiful. The settlements of the colonists extend chiefly through the middle of the island, from Port Dalrymple to Storm Bay. Hobart Town is the capital.

410. NEW ZEALAND.—This group of islands is situate in the South Pacific Ocean, about 1400 miles south-east of New South Wales. It consists of two large islands and one smaller one. The two large islands are traversed from north-east to south-west by a range of lofty mountains, intersected by beautiful valleys, and watered by fine rivers. Several active volcanoes are said to exist in the interior. Between the mountains and the sea is an immense extent of forest, plain, and pasture land; almost everywhere accessible by means of numerous fine bays and navigable rivers. The chief of these are Wangaroa Bay, the Bay of Islands, Port Nicholson, and the estuary of Hokianga, which receives the waters of twenty rivers, in the northern island; and in the

southern island, Akeroa and the harbour of Port Pegasus. Many small islands surround New Zealand. The climate is generally humid. The forests are extensive, various, and luxuriant. There are no indigenous quadrupeds, but various European breeds have been introduced. Black whales frequent the coast in vast numbers from May to September. New Zealand is a British colony. The chief settlements are at Port Nicholson and the Bay of Islands. Wellington and Kororarika are the chief towns.

SECTION III.

POLYNESIA.

411. *General Description.*—Polynesia consists, as its name implies, of numerous islands; which are scattered over the Pacific Ocean, and extend from Asia, Malaysia, and Australasia, on the west and south-west, to the wide open sea which washes the western shores of America. These islands, as regards their physical character, are either mountainous, hilly, or low coralline. The mountainous islands, mostly of volcanic origin, and originally submarine, are singularly romantic and sublime. The hilly islands are equally beautiful and luxuriant, but less majestic. The low coralline islands rise only a few feet above the level of the sea. They are generally small; but Tongataboo is 100 miles in circumference. They are all the work of the coral insects. The climate is generally warm and invariable, but tempered by the surrounding waters. The vegeta-

bles are all tropical. There are but few quadrupeds; but birds and fish are abundant. Some of the islands are collected in groups; others are solitary. The principal groups are those of the Ladrone or Marian, the Caroline, the Feejee, the Tonga or Friendly, the Society, the Marquesas, and the Sandwich Islands.

CHAPTER VIII.

GEOGRAPHY OF THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH.

412. *Religions of Mankind.*—The total population of the world has been estimated at 860 millions. Of these, 260 millions are Christians; 4 millions are Jews; 96 millions are Mahometans; and 500 millions are Heathens of various denominations. We have briefly noticed Mahometans and Heathens in the preceding pages. Jews are scattered, according to Divine Prophecy, over the whole face of the habitable globe; yet continue a distinct people. Christians are divisible into two great classes. The majority are members of CHRIST's One, Holy, Catholic, and Apostolic CHURCH: others are members of multiform and discordant *denominations*; mostly heretical, and all schismatical.

413. *Origin of the Christian Church.*—When JESUS CHRIST was about to ascend into heaven, He gave this sublime catholic commission to His Apostles, and, through them, to their Successors “to the end of the world:”—“Go ye into all the world, and preach the Gospel to every creature. Make Chris-

tians of all nations; baptizing them in the Name of the FATHER, and of the SON, and of the HOLY GHOST." On the Day of Pentecost, three thousand souls were converted, and joined to the Apostles' fellowship; and from that day forward until now the LORD hath added to the Church such as are being saved.

414. *Labours of S. Paul.*—The persecution of the infant Church at Jerusalem, A. D. 37, scattered abroad the disciples; who thereupon preached throughout Judea, Samaria, Phœnicia, Cyprus, and Syria. S. Paul, however, whose public ministry began about A. D. 44, was the first great Christian missionary. During the course of his three apostolic journeys, he founded churches in the southern and central parts of Asia Minor, in Macedonia and Greece, and along the coasts of Asia fronting Greece. About A. D. 59, he was carried as a prisoner to Rome, where he found a church already existing, as well as in other parts of Italy. Released from thence, S. Paul appears to have revisited Ephesus, where he left Timothy as bishop; to have preached in Crete, of which he made Titus bishop; to have passed through Macedonia, and even into Spain. Returning thence to Rome, he there suffered martyrdom, about A. D. 68.

415. *Labours of S. Peter and others.*—S. Peter appears to have preached the Gospel in the north of Asia Minor and in Chaldea: S. Thaddæus at Edessa and in Mesopotamia: S. Mark in Egypt, where he founded the Church of Alexandria, and constituted Anianus its first bishop. There are also traditions that Persia, Arabia, Ethiopia, and Britain were visited by some of the Apostles.

416. *The Church in the First and Second Centuries.*—According to S. Irenæus, bishop of Lyons, about A.D. 178, the Church had spread into Germany, France, Spain, and Libya. Tertullian, a few years later, testifies to the propagation of the gospel into Parthia, Media, and Armenia; among the Getuli and Moors in Africa; into all the borders of Spain; among many nations of Gaul; into those parts of Britain which were inaccessible to the Romans; among the Sarmatians, Dacians, Germans, Scythians, and many others.

417. *Conversion of the Roman Empire.*—In the succeeding centuries new nations were gathered within the Christian fold. Many of the Arabs were converted by Origen. The natives of Georgia and Iberia, and the Goths of Mysia and Thrace submitted to the dominion of Christ. The gospel continued to spread throughout Gaul and Germany; the conversion of the Gauls being completed by S. Martin of Tours. At the close of the fourth century, the decree of Theodosius banished Paganism from the Roman Empire, and Christianity took open possession of the throne of the Cæsars. During the three centuries that followed the age of the Apostles, the gospel was confined within its original limits; viz. Britain, the Rhine, the Danube, the Caspian Sea, the Persian Gulf, and the boundaries of proconsular Africa; the labours of the successors of the Apostles being devoted rather to the consolidation of the Church within those limits, than to its extension beyond them.

418. *Conversion of the Northern Tribes.*—But the decay of the Roman Empire imposed new trials

and new labours upon the Church. Barbarous hordes of Goths, Heruli, Vandals, Huns, Franks, and Saxons, poured in upon the luxurious and degenerate people, and subdued the greatest portion of the West. churches of Britain, Germany, Italy, Spain, and The Africa groaned beneath the yoke of heathen or Arian conquerors. Yet several heathen nations were now converted. S. Symeon Stylites laboured successfully among the natives of Libanus and a portion of Arabia. The gospel, already introduced into Ireland, was successfully propagated throughout that island by S. Patrick, who was sent thither, A.D. 432, by S. Coelestinus, bishop of Rome. During the next four or five centuries, the lights of religion and learning shed lustre upon Ireland, entitling it to the appellation of the "Island of Saints." Among its more distinguished saints were SS. Kevin, Bridget, Columbanus, Columba, and Malachy. In the year 496, the Franks, with Clovis their king, the founder of the French monarchy, were converted by S. Remigius, archbishop of Rheims.

419. *The Church in the East.*—We must now glance at the condition of the East. This was grievously distracted by heresies, to which the subtle minds of Greece and the East were naturally prone. The Arabian prophet Mahomet, who rose early in the seventh century, teaching the unity and spirituality of the Deity, and denying the human side of Christian truth, easily overpowered the heretical sects of the East; and propagated his pretended revelation, by force of arms, throughout Arabia, Egypt, and along the northern coast of Africa. But although the Church in the East has

degenerated, it has never wholly perished: and after the lapse of twelve hundred years, there are still numerous churches in Asia Minor, Syria, Palestine, and Egypt; although they are but few, when compared with the eight hundred churches ruled by bishops in the fifth century.

420. *Irish Missionaries*.—The flame of apostolical zeal spread from Ireland among the barbarous tribes of western Europe. In the early part of the seventh century, the Suevi, Boii, and Franks of Germany were converted by S. Columbanus. S. Gallus became the apostle of Switzerland; S. Kilianus, of the eastern Franks; S. Willibrod and his companions, of Batavia, Friesland, and Westphalia. All these were natives of Ireland, except S. Willibrod, who was an Anglo-Saxon.

421. *The Five Patriarchal Sees*.—By the middle of the fifth century, the five patriarchal sees of Rome, Constantinople, Alexandria, Antioch, and Jerusalem, were fully established.* The patriarchate of Rome extended over the "suburbicarian" provinces (so called from their vicinity to Rome), which included the greater portion of Italy, together with Sicily, Sardinia, and Corsica. The patriarchate of Constantinople extended over the whole of Asia Minor (excepting the province of Cilicia); as well as over Thrace, in Europe. The patriarchate of Antioch included the provinces of Cilicia, Mesopotamia, Arabia, and others intervening. The patriarchate of Jerusalem consisted of the three provinces of Palestine. The patriarchate of Alexandria ex-

* See Palmer's "Compendious Ecclesiastical History," pp. 102—104.

tended over the provinces of Egypt, Libya, and Pentapolis.

422. *Other Sees.*—Besides these patriarchates, there were numerous and extensive portions of the Christian Church, governed only by their own metropolitans and provincial synods, and not subject to any foreign jurisdiction; although some of them subsequently suffered from the usurpations of the Roman patriarch. Among these we may mention the episcopal sees of northern Italy, Spain, France, and Britain.

423. *The Church in England.*—The Christian Church was planted in Britain in the time of the Apostles. As Druidism yielded to Roman Paganism, so this yielded to the gospel: and bishops were established in the principal cities; as London, York, Chester, and Caer-leon on Usk. Towards the end of the fourth century, the British churches became distressed; politically by the invasion of the Picts and Scots, theologically by the introduction of the Arian and Pelagian heresies. The bishops of France relieved them in their distress, sending over S. Germain, bishop of Auxerre, as champion for the faith. The South Britons having invited over the Saxons, this heathen people, as they extended their petty kingdoms, supplanted Christianity and destroyed the churches. At length there only remained, as pastors of the Church of Britain, the saints whose memory is honoured in Wales, and S. Columba, the apostle of Iona and the Highlands of Scotland. The Church had now existed in Britain for about 500 years: but the Saxons, who overran the island, were pagans. About this time S. Gregory the Great,

bishop of Rome, commiserating the condition of the Anglo-Saxons, sent over some pious monks to this island for their conversion: an act of Christian charity for which our acknowledgments are due, but which conferred upon the pope no rights of jurisdiction over the English Church. And, indeed, the conversion of the Saxons was chiefly owing to several bishops and missionaries who came over from Ireland in the following century. For six hundred years, the Church of England* had been independent of the Roman see: but by a series of encroachments she fell under the papal yoke, until the sixteenth century; when she cast off this usurped jurisdiction, but without severing herself from catholic communion. The tyrannous and schismatical proceedings of Rome, much as they are to be deplored, have not impaired the catholicity of the Church of England.

424. *The Church to the Fourteenth Century.*—During the eighth century, the invasion of Spain and of southern Europe by the Saracens greatly depressed the Church in those regions. In the north of Europe, however, the gospel continued to spread. S. Boniface, an Englishman and a monk of the order of S. Benedict, became the apostle of Germany. SS. Lullus, Willibrod, Rupert, Firminus, Virgilius, and others, propagated the gospel along the banks of the Rhine, in the Black Forest, in Bavaria, and Thuringia. The seeds of faith had been sown in Holland, towards the end of the seventh century, by SS. Eligius and Wilfred; and the work of conver-

* The British and Anglo-Saxon Churches may be considered to have finally blended into the Church of England, during the primacy of S. Theodore of Tarsus, about A.D. 668.

sion was completed by S. Willibrod and his companions. The Belgians first received the faith by the preaching of S. Eleutherius, A.D. 532, and of Vedast, A.D. 536. In the latter part of the eighth century, the emperor Charlemagne, having conquered the greater part of Germany and Hungary, established churches throughout his dominions. In the early part of the ninth century, S. Anschar, a monk of Corbie in Westphalia, laid the foundations of the Church in Cimbria, Denmark and Sweden; and is honoured as the apostle of those northern regions. About the middle of the ninth century, SS. Methodius and Cyril, two Greek monks, the apostles of Poland and Prussia, converted the Mœsians, Moravians, and Bohemians. During the tenth century, the Slaves,—wandering tribes inhabiting the barren table-lands of Sclavonia and Sarmatia, shut in by the Elbe and the Oural Mountains,—were instructed and baptized by missionaries from the Eastern Church. The Bulgarians were converted by bishops from Constantinople. The vast nations of Russia, first moved by missionaries sent by Ignatius, patriarch of Constantinople, followed the example of Wlodimir, their sovereign, who was baptized, A.D. 987, and embraced the Christian faith. The conversion of Sweden was completed by Sigfrid; and of Norway by Guthebold, a missionary from the Church of England. In 1124, S. Otto, bishop of Bamberg, preached the gospel in the duchy of Pomerania. The Sclavonians on the borders of the Baltic were converted by Vicelinus, bishop of Oldenberg. The gospel was propagated in Prussia, A.D. 1210, by some Cistercian monks, and the pagan inhabitants

were afterwards subdued by the Teutonic Knights, and gradually converted. The last country in Europe to receive the gospel was Lithuania. By the end of the thirteenth century, Paganism was well nigh banished from the limits of Europe. The following Table, from the Appendix to Dr. Grant's Bampton Lectures for 1843, exhibits the extension of the gospel in Europe between the fifth and fourteenth centuries.

CENTURY.

- 5th.....Among the Burgundians, Scots, Irish, and Franks
(under Clovis, A.D. 496).
- 6th.....Among the Picts, Heruli (on the Danube), Abasgi.
- 7th.....Among the Lombards, West-Saxons, East-Angles,
Middle-Angles, Treveri; in Franconia, Switzerland,
Westphalia, Friesland, Thuringia.
- 8th.....In Thuringia, Hessa, Bavaria, Westphalia, and
among the Venedi.
- 9th.....In Saxony, Denmark, Sweden, Bohemia, and Mo-
ravia, Hungary.
- 10th.....In Norway, Poland, Russia, Normandy.
- 11th.....More perfectly in Sweden and Denmark, Hungary,
Bulgaria.
- 12th.....In Livonia, Pomerania.
- 13th and 14th.....In Prussia (by the Teutonic Knights),
Lithuania.

425. *Present Territories of the Church.*—We now proceed to state, as accurately as the case admits, the present territorial distribution of the Catholic Church throughout the world; noticing at the same time the principal sects by which it is troubled, and the religions which in some countries have supplanted it.

426. *British Empire.*—England and Wales are divided into two archiepiscopal provinces. The province of Canterbury comprises the archbishopric

of Canterbury, and the bishoprics of London, Winchester, Ely, Lincoln, Rochester, Lichfield and Coventry, Hereford, Worcester, Bath and Wells, Salisbury, Exeter, Chichester, Norwich, Gloucester and Bristol, Oxford, Peterborough, in England; with Bangor, Llandaff, St. Asaph, and St. David's, in Wales. The province of York comprises the archbishopric of York, and the bishoprics of Carlisle, Chester, Durham, Ripon, Sodor and Man, and Manchester.* Ireland is divided into two archiepiscopal provinces. The province of Armagh comprises the archbishopric of Armagh, and the bishoprics of Meath; Derry and Raphoe; Down, Connor, and Dromore; Kilmore, Elphin, and Ardagh; and Tuam, Killalla, and Achonry. The province of Dublin comprises the archbishopric of Dublin, and the bishoprics of Ossory, Ferns, and Leighlin; Cashel, Emly, Waterford, and Lismore; Cork, Ross, and Cloyne; Killaloe,* Kilfenora, Clonfert, and Kilmacduagh; and Limerick, Ardfert, and Aghadoe. Romanists are very numerous in Ireland. The colonial bishoprics are those of Nova Scotia, Quebec, Toronto, Newfoundland, Jamaica, Barbadoes, Antigua, Guiana, Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Gibraltar, New Brunswick, and Colombo. The Church in Scotland, which is not "established," comprises the dioceses of Aberdeen; Edinburgh; Dundelk, Dunblane, and Fife; Moray, Ross, and Argyle; Brechin; and Glasgow. Presbyterianism is "established" in Scotland. The Chaplain to the British Embassy at the Court of France is a bishop. There is also a bishop of the English Church at Jerusalem.

* Not yet erected.

427. *The American Church.*—The American Church, being a daughter of the Church of England, may properly be noticed here. It comprises the dioceses of Connecticut, Pennsylvania, New York, Virginia, Maryland, South Carolina, New Hampshire and Massachusetts, New Jersey, Ohio, North Carolina, Vermont, Kentucky, Tennessee, Illinois, Missouri and Indiana, Delaware, Maine, Alabama, Michigan, and Florida. “If we compare the map of America with the fixed organization of the Church, we are at once struck with the Church’s rapid and universal extension. Bishoprics are well nigh co-extensive with the States of the Union. Through all that vast continent, the living form of Church-polity has grown up, as in a night, from the two bishops who landed at New York on Easter Sunday, 1787. From puritan Massachusetts in the north down to the slave-tilled bottoms of torrid Louisiana, and from the crowded harbour of New York back to the unbroken forests and rolling prairie of Illinois, the Successors of the Twelve administer in CHRIST’S name the rule of His Spiritual Kingdom.”*

428. *Church of England Missions.*—During the seventh, eighth, and eleventh centuries, a devoted missionary spirit prevailed in the Church of England; but it was not until long after the Reformation that she renewed her labours in the apostolic work of propagating the gospel in foreign parts, and evangelizing the heathen. Towards the end of the seventeenth century, the excellent Robert Boyle strove to promote the Church in India and America.

* “History of the American Church,” by Archdeacon S. Wilberforce, p. 397.

In the beginning of the eighteenth century, Bishop Berkeley devoted himself to the conversion of the American Indians. In 1698, the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge was established; and in 1701, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts. The former of these has contributed to the support of various missions to the heathen, especially in India. The latter, after having long maintained missions in North America and other possessions of the British crown, has lately had its labours crowned by the establishment of colonial bishoprics. The Church Missionary Society, (established A.D. 1800,) though irregular in its constitution and operations, has laboured in the same general field of Christian enterprise not without success, especially among the islands of the Southern Ocean.

429. *France*.—The Gallican Church symbolizes substantially with the Church of Rome. France is divided into fourteen archiepiscopal provinces, including fourteen archbishoprics and sixty-six bishoprics. The province of Paris comprises the archbishopric of Paris, and the bishoprics of Chartres, Meaux, Orléans, Blois, Versailles, Arras, and Cambrai. The province of Lyon and Vienne comprises the archbishopric of Lyon, and the bishoprics of Autun, Langres, Dijon, Saint Claude, and Grenoble. The province of Rouen includes the archbishopric of Rouen, and the bishoprics of Bayeux, Evreux, Séez, and Coutances. The province of Sens and Auxerre comprises the archbishopric of Sens and Auxerre, and the bishoprics of Troyes, Nevers, and Moulins. The province of Rheims comprises the archbishopric of Rheims, and

the bishoprics of Soissons, Châlons, Beauvais, and Amiens. The province of Tours comprises the archbishopric of Tours, and the bishoprics of Le Mans, Angers, Rennes, Nantes, Quimpér, Gannes, and Saint Brieux. The province of Bourges comprises the archbishopric of Bourges, and the bishoprics of Clermont, Limoges, Le Puy, Tulle, and Saint Flour. The province of Alby comprises the archbishopric of Alby, and the bishoprics of Rhodéz, Cahors, Mende, and Perpignan. The province of Bordeaux comprises the archbishopric of Bordeaux, and the bishoprics of Agen, Angoulême, Poitiers, Périgueux, La Rochelle, and Luçon. The province of Auch comprises the archbishopric of Auch, and the bishoprics of Aire, Tarbes, and Bayonne. The province of Toulouse and Narbonne comprises the archbishopric of Toulouse, and the bishoprics of Montauban, Pamiers, and Carcassonne. The province of Aix, Arles, and Embrun comprises the archbishopric of Aix and Arles, and the bishoprics of Marseilles, Fréjus, Digne, Gap, and Ajaccio. The province of Besançon comprises the archbishopric of Besançon, and the bishoprics of Strasbourg, Metz, Verdun, Belley, Saint Dié, and Nancy. The province of Avignon comprises the archbishopric of Avignon, and the bishoprics of Nîmes, Valence, Viviers, and Montpellier.

430. *Switzerland*.—Lucerne, Uri, Schweiz, Unterwald, Zug, Inner Appenzell, Tessin, and Valais are Roman Catholic cantons. The majority of the people of Fribourg, Soleure, and St. Gall, and the minority in the remaining cantons, are also in communion with the Church of Rome. The people of

the Outer Appenzell, of nearly the whole of Zurich, Bern, Basle, Schaffhausen, Vaud, and Neuchatel; of the greater part of Glarus, Grisons, Aargau, Thurgau, and Geneva; and the minority of the people of Fribourg, Soleure, and St. Gall, are Calvinists, or belong to some other Protestant denomination. There are four Roman Catholic dioceses; Chur and St. Gall, Basle, Lausanne, and Sion: the bishops of which are suffragans of the archbishop of Milan, whose jurisdiction was originally independent of the Roman patriarch. Tessin is in the diocese of the bishop of Como. The government of the Protestant societies is considered as a branch of the department of public instruction; and, as such, belongs to the civil magistrates in the various cantons.

431. *Belgium*.—The Church in Belgium is under the government of the archbishop of Malines, and the bishops of Bruges, Ghent, Liege, Namur, and Tournay. There are but few Protestants in this country.

432. *Holland*.—There is no “established” Church in Holland. The majority of the Dutch are Calvinists. Missions were established by the Dutch in some of their Indian colonies, during the seventeenth century; but these have ceased with the temporal dominion of Holland.

433. *Austrian Empire*.—The Latin Church embraces the great majority of the population. It is under the government of eleven archbishops and fifty-nine bishops. The monastic foundations are numerous and richly endowed. The papal power is greatly abridged, while that of the emperor is exces-

sive. The Greek United Church is governed by one archbishop and six bishops. An archbishop of the Armenian Church is established at Lemberg. The Greek Church in Austria is governed by one archbishop and ten bishops: this exists chiefly in Transylvania, Southern Hungary, Slavonia, Croatia, and Galicia. The chief Protestant sects are the Lutheran, Calvinistic, and Socinian; the first being chiefly found in Hungary and Transylvania, the second in the German provinces and Galicia, the third in Transylvania.

434. *Hungary*.—In this country also, the majority of the people are members of the Latin Church, under the spiritual government of the archbishops of Gran, Kolocsa, and Erlau, and of seventeen bishops. The archbishop of Gran is primate of Hungary. Those churches which use the Greek ritual, but are in communion with the see of Rome, are called United Greek. The Greek Church is governed by the archbishop of Karlowitz and seven bishops. The Protestants professing the Confessions of Augsburg (Lutherans), and of Geneva (Calvinists), have also legal establishments.

435. *Prussia*.—The “Evangelical” religion, a compound of Lutheranism and Calvinism, may be regarded as the religion of the state. It is administered by consistories composed of superintendents, and subject to the supervision of the Minister of the Interior. About two-fifths of the population are Roman Catholics, under the spiritual government of the archbishops of Gnesen and Cologne, and nine bishops.

436. *Germany*.—About one-half of the population acknowledge the authority of the pope; about two-fifths profess the “Evangelical” religion; the remainder are Calvinists, Moravians, Jews, &c. The Moravians have prosecuted missions with great success, especially in Greenland and the adjacent countries.

437. *Denmark*.—Lutheranism is the “established” religion of the state. There are nine Lutheran bishops, nominated by the king. The missionary labours of Denmark at the beginning of the seventeenth century, have been continued by the Moravians in Greenland, and the Church of England in the East.

438. *Sweden*.—Lutheranism is also the “established” religion of Sweden and Norway, and is held by nearly all the people. There is a Lutheran archbishop of Upsala. There are also eleven bishops in Sweden, and five in Norway.

439. *Russia*.—The Greek Church is “established” throughout this vast empire; but many of the nomadic tribes are still heathen, and Islamism extensively prevails. The metropolitan of the Russian Church was long nominated by the patriarch of Constantinople. After the capture of Constantinople by the Turks, in 1453, the Russian clergy appointed their own metropolitan; until Peter the Great declared himself to be the head of the Russo-Greek Church. The hierarchy consists of bishops, archbishops, and metropolitans. The whole number of dioceses is thirty-eight. There are about seventy dissenting sects, known by the common denomination of *raskolniks*.

440. *Spain and Portugal*.—The archbishop of Toledo is primate of Spain; and the patriarch of Lisbon the supreme head of the clergy in Portugal. The Church in these countries was long powerful, energetic, and firmly established; but the cruelty of the Inquisition, the degeneracy of the priesthood, and the general declension of all classes from the true catholic and apostolic standards of faith and morals, have involved it in punishment; the instruments of Divine Providence being the infidels and anarchists of late years. The regular clergy, with their monasteries and convents, have been suppressed; the whole property of the Church has been confiscated; the secular clergy have been made entirely dependent on the State, and are reduced almost to a state of indigence.

441. *Italy*.—The Church of Rome here occupies, with some usurpations, her lawful patrimony. The number of episcopal sees is considerable; although much reduced. The pope is a temporal sovereign, as well as an ecclesiastical patriarch. Roman missions exist in all parts of the world, and are prosecuted chiefly by the Religious Orders; among whom the Jesuits, Franciscans, Dominicans, Capuchins, and Carmelites have taken the lead.

442. *Greece*.—The “established” religion is that of the “Orthodox Oriental Apostolic Church.” There are thirty-three bishops of the Greek Church; and four Latin bishops. The king is the titular head of the Church; which is now independent of the patriarch of Constantinople.

443. *Syria, &c.*—Nestorian Christians exist in Ottoman Asia, Armenia, and other parts of the East:

they must be accounted heretics. The Nestorians in India call themselves Christians of S. Thomas. The Monophysites or Eutychians are also heretical, although many of them are in communion with the see of Rome. Those who reside in Asia are subdivided into Jacobites and Armenians: the spiritual head of the Jacobites takes the title of patriarch of Antioch. The Maronites are also unsound in the Faith: they acknowledge the papal supremacy, but are under the immediate rule of a titular patriarch: they occupy the hill-country between Beyrout and Tripoli. The population of Syria is exceedingly various in respect of its religious faith. There is an Anglo-Prussian bishop at Jerusalem.

444. *Egypt and Abyssinia*.—The ancient churches in Africa have long been extinct. The Coptic Christians are a branch of the Eutychians: their patriarch resides at Cairo, but takes the title of patriarch of Alexandria. The Abyssinians or Ethiopians were chiefly converted by S. Frumentius, sent to them by S. Athanasius during the fourth century: they retain a corrupt and debased form of the Christian faith.

445. *Conclusion*.—We cannot more appropriately conclude this chapter, and this little work, than with the CHURCH's inspired and daily Prayer for the Conversion of the whole World to the Faith and Obedience of JESUS CHRIST:—"God be merciful unto us, and bless us: and shew us the light of His countenance, and be merciful unto us. That Thy way may be known upon earth: Thy saving health among all nations. Let the people praise Thee, O God: yea, let all the people praise Thee. O let the nations

rejoice and be glad: for Thou shalt judge the folk righteously, and govern the nations upon earth. Let the people praise Thee, O God: yea, let all the people praise Thee. Then shall the earth bring forth her increase: and God, even our own God, shall give us His blessing. God shall bless us: and all the ends of the world shall fear Him. Glory be to the FATHER, and to the SON, and to the HOLY GHOST. As it was in the beginning, is now, and ever shall be, world without end. Amen."



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